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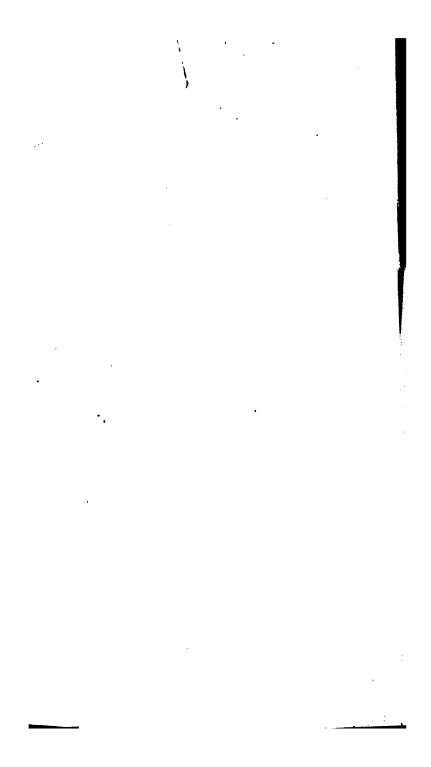
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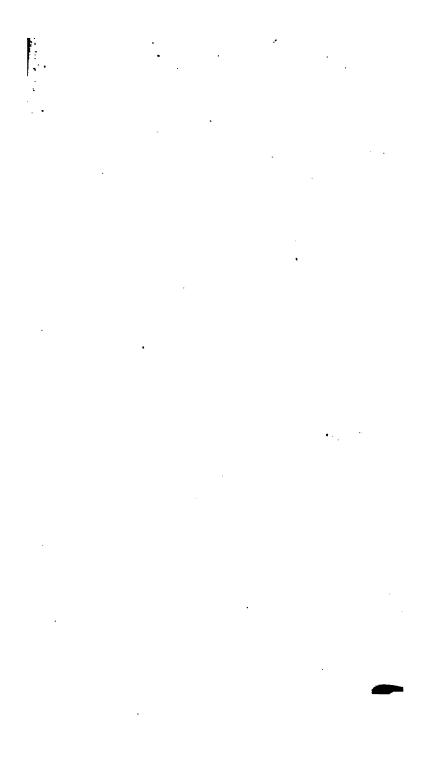
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BROWN'S GRAMMAR IMPROVED.

THE

INSTITUTES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

METHODICALLY ARRANGED;

WITH

FORMS OF PARSING AND CORRECTING, EXAMPLES FOR PARSING,
QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION, FALSE SYNTAX FOR CORRECTION, EXERCISES FOR WRITING, OBSERVATIONS
FOR THE ADVANCED STUDENT, FIVE
METHODS OF ANALYSIS.

AND

A KEY TO THE ORAL EXERCISES:

TO WHICH ARE ADDED

FOUR APPENDIXES.

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES, AND PRIVATE LEARNERS.

BY GOOLD BROWN,

PRINCIPAL OF AN ENGLISH AND CLASSICAL ACADEMY, NEW YORK.

"Ne quis igitur tanquam parva fastidiat Grammatices elementa."—Quintillam.

A NEW STEREOTYPE EDITION, CAREFULLY REVISED BY THE AUTHOR.

NEW YORK:

PUBLISHED BY SAMUEL S. & WILLIAM WOOD, No. 389 BROADWAY.

1857.

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THOMAS B. SMITH, 82 & 84 Beckman St.

PREFACE.

"Neque enim aut aliena vituperare, aut nostra jactantiùs prædicare, animus est."

1. LANGUAGE is the principal vehicle of thought; and so numerous and important are the ends to which it is subservient, that it is difficult to conceive in what manner the affairs of human society could be conducted without it. Its utility, therefore, will ever entitle it to a considerable share of attention in civilized communities, and to an ever entitle it to a considerable share of attention in civilized communities, and to an important place in all systems of education. For, whatever we may think in relation to its origin—whether we consider it a special gift from Heaven, or an acquisition of industry—a natural endowment, or an artificial invention,—certain it is, that, in the present state of things, our knowledge of it depends, in a great measure, if not entirely, on the voluntary exercise of our faculties, and on the helps and opportunities afforded us. One may indeed acquire, by mere imitation, such a knowledge of words, as to enjoy the ordinary advantages of speech; and he who is satisfied with the dialect he has so obtained will find no occasion for treatises on grammar, but hawho is distingting the contractions of the state of the contractions of the contraction of has so obtained, will find no occasion for treatises on grammar; but he who is desirous

has so obtained, will find no occasion for treatises on grammar; but he who is desirous either of relishing the beauties of literary composition, or of expressing his sentiments with propriety and ease, must make the principles of language his study.

2. It is not the business of the grammarian to give law to language, but to teach it, agreeably to the best usage. The ultimate principle by which he must be governed, and with which his instructions must always accord, is that species of custom which critics denominate eood use; that is, present, reputable, general use. This principle, which is equally opposed to fantastic innovation, and to a pertinacious adherence to the quaint peculiarities of ancient usage, is the only proper standard of grammatical purity. Those rules and modes of speech, which are established by this authority, may be called the Institutes of Grammar.

3. To embody, in a convenient form, the true principles of the English Language; to express them in a simple and perspicuous style, adapted to the capacity of youth; to illustrate them by appropriate examples and exercises; and to give to the whole all possible advantage from method in the arrangement; are the objects of the following work. The author has not deviated much from the principles adopted in the most

possible advantage from method in the arrangement; are the objects of the following work. The author has not deviated much from the principles adopted in the most approved grammars already in use; nor has he acted the part of a servile copylst. It was not his design to introduce novelties, but to form a practical digest of established rules. He has not laboured to subvert the general system of grammar, received from time immemorial; but to improve upon it, in its present application to our tongue.

4. That which is excellent, may not be perfect; and amendment may be desirable, where subversion would be ruinous. Believing that no theory can better explain the principles of our language, and no contrivance afford greater facilities to the student, the writer has in general adopted those doctrines which are already best known; and has contented himself with attempting little more than an inprovel method of incul-

the writer has in general adopted those doctrines which are already best known; and has contented himself with attempting little more than an improved method of inculcating them. The scope of his labours has been, to define, dispose, and exemplify those doctrines anew; and, with a scrupulous regard to the best usage, to offer, on that authority, some further contributions to the stock of grammatical knowledge. The errors of former grammarians he has been more studious to avoid than to expose; and of their deficiencies the reader may judge, when he sees in what manner they are

here supplied.

5. This treatise being intended for general use, and adapted to all classes of learners, was designed to embrace in a small compass a complete course of English Grammar, disencumbered of every thing not calculated to convey direct information on the sub-ject. Little regard has therefore been paid to gainsayers. Grammarians have ever disputed, and often with more acrimony than discretion. Those who have dealt most in philological controversy, have well illustrated the couplet of Denham:

"The tree of knowledge, blasted by disputes, Produces sapless leaves in stead of fruits."

6. They who set aside the authority of custom, and judge every thing to be ungrammatical which appears to them to be unphilosophical, render the whole ground forever disputable, and weary themselves in beating the air. So various have been the notions of this sort of critics, that it would be difficult to mention an opinion not found in some of their books. Amidst this rage for speculation on a subject purely practical, various attempts have been made, to overthrow that system of instruction, which long use has rendered venerable, and long experience proved to be useful. But it is manifestly much easier to raise even plausible objections against this system, than to in-

vent an other less objectionable. Such attempts have generally met the reception they deserved. Their history will give no encouragement to future innovators.

7. While some have thus wasted their energies in eccentric flights, vainly supposing that the learning of ages would give place to their whimsical theories; others, with more success, not better deserved, have multiplied grammars almost innumerably, by abridging or modifying the books they had used in childhood. So that they who are at all acquainted with the origin and character of the various compends thus introduced into our schools, cannot but desire a work which shall deserve a more extensive and more permanent patronage, based upon better claims. For, as Lord Bacon observes, the number of ill-written books is not to be diminished by ceasing to write, but by writing others which, like Aaron's serenes, shall swallow up the sourious

serves, the number of in-written books is not to be dimmission by ceasing to write, due by writing others which, like Aaron's serpent, shall swallow up the spurious.

8. The nature of the subject almost entirely precludes invention. The author has, however, aimed at that kind and degree of originality, which are to be commended in works of this sort; and has borrowed no more from others than did the most learned and popular of his predecessors. And, though he has taken the liberty to think and write for himself, he trusts it will be evident that few have excelled him in diligence of research, or have followed more implicitly the dictates of that authority which

gives law to language.

9. All science is laid in the nature of things; and he only who seeks it there, can rightly guide others in the paths of knowledge. He alone can know whether his predecessors went right or wrong, who is capable of a judgement independent of theirs. But with what shameful servility have many false or faulty definitions and rules been copied and copied from one grammar to another, as if authority had canonized their errors, or none had eyes to see them! Whatsoever is dignified and fair, is also modest errors, or none had eyes to see them! Whatsoever is dignified and fair, is also modest and reasonable; but modesty does not consist in having no opinion of one's own, nor reason in following with blind partiality the footsteps of others. Grammar unsupported by authority, is indeed mere fiction. But what apology is this, for that authorably which has produced so many grammars without originality? Shall he who cannot write for himself, improve upon him who can? It is not deference to merit, but impudent pretence, practising on the credulity of ignorance! Commonnes alone exempts it from scrutiny, and the success it has, is but the wages of its own worth-lessness! To read and be informed, is to make a proper use of books for the advancement of learning; but to assume to be an author by editing mere commonplaces and stolen criticisms, is equally beneath the ambition of a scholar and the honesty of a man.

10. Grammar being a practical art, with the principles of which every intelligent person is more or less acquainted, it might be expected that a book written professedly on the subject, should exhibit some evidence of its author's skill. But it would seem that a multitude of bad or indifferent writers have judged themselves qualified to teach the art of speaking and writing well; so that correctness of language and neatness of style are as rarely to be found in grammars as in other books. There have been, however, several excellent scholars, who have thought it an object not unworthy peen, nowever, several excellent scholars, who have thought it an object not unworms of their talents, to prescribe and elucidate the principles of English Grammar. But these, for an obvious reason, have executed their designs with various degrees of success; and even the most meritorious have left ample room for improvement, though some have evinced an ability which does honour to themselves, while it gives cause to regret their lack of an inducement to further labour. The mere grammarian can neither aspire to praise, nor stipulate for a reward; and to those who were best qualified to write, the subject could offer no adequate motive for diligence.

11 Having devoted many were to studies of this nature and heing convergent with

11. Having devoted many years to studies of this nature, and being conversant with 11. Having devoted many years to studies of this nature, and being conversant with most of the grammatical treatises already published, the author conceived that the objects above enumerated, might, perhaps, be better effected than they had been in any work within his knowledge. And he persuades himself that the improvements here offered, are neither few nor inconsiderable. He does not mean, however, to depreciate the labours, or to detract from the merits of those who have gone before him and taught with acknowledged skill. He has studiously endeavoured to avail himself of all the light they have thrown upon the subject. For his own information, he has carefully perused more than two hundred English grammars, and has glanced over many others that were not worth reading. With this publication in view, he has also resorted to the original sources of grammatical knowledge, and has not only critically considered what he has seen and heard of our vernacular tongue, but has sought time some diligence the analogies of speech in the structure of several other languages.

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12. His progress in compiling this work has been slow, and not unattended with labour and difficulty. Amidst the contrarieties of opinion, that appear in the various treatises already before the public, and the perplexities inseparable from so complicated a subject, he has, after deliberate consideration, adopted those views and explanations which appeared to him the least liable to objection, and the most compatible with his ultimate object—the production of a practical school grammar.

13. Ambitious of making not a large but an acceptable book, he has compressed into this volume the most essential parts of a mass of materials from which he could assaily have formed a folio. Whether the toil be compensated or not, is a matter of little consequence; he has neither written for bread, nor built castles in the air. He is too well versed in the history of his theme, too well aware of the precarious fortune

of authors, to indulge any confident anticipations of success; yet he will not deny that his hopes are large, being conscious of having cherished them with a liberality of feeling which cannot fear disappointment. In this temper he would invite the reader to a thorough perusal of the following pages. A grammar should speak for itself. In a work of this nature, every word or tittle which does not recommend the performance to the understanding and taste of the skillful, is, so far as it goes, a certificate against it. Yet, if some small errors have escaped detection, let it be recollected that it is almost impossible to print with perfect accuracy a work of this size, in which so many little things should be observed, remembered, and made exactly to correspond. There is no human vicilance which multiplicity was not sweetings helds and mintereses. is no human vigilance which multiplicity may not sometimes baffle, and minuteness is no numer educate when mutuality may not sometimes bame, and minuteness sometimes elude. To most persons grammar seems a dry and difficult subject; but there is a disposition of mind, to which what is arduous, is for that very reason alluring. The difficulties encountered in boyhood from the use of a miserable epitome, and the deep impression of a few mortifying blunders made in public, first gave the author a fondness for grammar; circumstances having since favoured this turn of his genius, he has voluntarily pursued the study, with an assiduity which no man will ever trulted for the sake of recursive recompress.

imitate for the sake of pecuniary recompense.

14. This work contains a full series of exercises adapted to its several parts, with This work contains a full series of exercises adapted to its severa parts, win notices of the manner in which they are to be used, according to the place assigned them. The examples of false syntax placed under the rules, are to be corrected orally; the four chapters of exercises adapted to the four parts of the subject, are to be written out by the learner. In selecting examples for these exercises, the author has been studious to economize the learner's and the teacher's time, by admitting those parts which were were short. The has in general reduced each example to a tirele only which were very short. He has, in general, reduced each example to a single line. And, in this manner, he has been able to present, in this small volume, a series of exercises, more various than are given in any other grammar, and nearly equal in number to all that are contained in Murray's two octavoes. It is believed that a gram-number to all that are comprehensive and concise, has not before been

matical treatise as once so complementary and conserve an grammar without imposing this task, is disproved by universal experience. Nor wait avail any thing for the student to rehearse definitions and rules of which he makes no practical application. In etymology and syntax, he should be alternately exercised in learning small portions of his book, and then applying them in parsing, till the whole is rendered familiar. To a good reader, the achievement will be neither great nor difficult; and the exercise is well calculated to improve the memory, and strength-

en all the faculties of the mind.

en all the faculties of the mind.

16. The mode of instruction here recommended is the result of long and successful experience. There is nothing in it, which any person of common abilities will find it difficult to understand or adopt. It is the plain didactic method of definition and example, rule and praxis; which no man who means to teach grammar well, will ever desert, with the hope of finding an other more rational or more easy. The book itself will make any one a grammarian, who will take the trouble to observe and practise what it teaches: and even if some instructors should not adopt the readiest and most efficient method of making their pupils familiar with its contents, they will not fail to instruct by it as effectually as they can by any other. Whoever is acquainted with the grammar of our language, so as to have some tolerable skill in teaching it, will here find almost every thing that is true in his own instructions, clearly embraced under its proper head, so as to be easy of reference. And perhaps there are few, however learned, who, on a perusal of the volume, would not be furnished with some important rules and facts which had not before occurred to their own observation.

17. The greatest peculiarity of the method is, that it requires the pupit to speak or

portant rules and facts which had not before occurred to their own observation.

17. The greatest peculiarity of the method is, that it requires the pupil to speak or write a great deal, and the teacher very little. But both should constantly remember that grammar is the art of speaking and writing well; an art which can no more be acquired without practice than that of dancing or swimming. And each should be careful to perform his part handsomely—without drawling, omitting, stopping, hesitating, faltering, miscailing, reiterating, stuttering, hurrying, slurring, mouthing, misquoting, mispronounding, or any of the thousand faults which render utterance disagreeable and inelegant. It is the learner's diction that is to be improved; and the statement of the court of the statement of the court of the course of the court of the course of the court of the course agreeable and inelegant. It is the learner's diction that is to be improved; and the system will be found well calculated to effect that object; because it demands of him, not only to answer questions on grammar, but also to make a prompt and practical application of what he has just learned. If the class be tolerable readers, it will not be necessary for the teacher to say much; and, in general, he ought not to take up the time by so doing. He should, however, carefully superintend their rehearsals; give the word to the next, when any one errs; and order the exercise in such a maner that either his own voice, or the example of his best scholars, may gradually correct the ill habits of the awkward, till all learn to recite with clearness, understanding well what they say, and making it intelligible to others.

18. The exercise of parsing commences immediately after the first lesson of etymology, and is carried on progressively till it embraces all the doctrines that are applica-

ble to it. If it be performed according to the order prescribed, it will soon make the student perfectly familiar with all the primary definitions and rules of grammar. It requires just enough of thought to keep the mind attentive to what the lips are uttering; while it advances by such easy gradations and constant repetitions as leave the pupil utterly without excuse, if he does not know what to say. Being neither wholly extemporaneous nor wholly rehearsed by rote, it has more dignity than a school-boy's conversation, and more ease than a formal recitation, or declamation; and is therefore an exercise well calculated to induce a habit of uniting correctness with fluency in ordinary speech—a species of electrion as valuable as any other.

and exercise were calculated without a maint of unting order.

19. The best instruction is that which ultimately gives the greatest facility as a sill in practice; and grammar is best taught by that process which brings its doctrines most directly home to the habits as well as to the thoughts of the pupil—which the most effectually conquers inattention, and leaves the deepest impress of shame upon blundering ignorance. In the whole range of school exercises, there is none of greater importance than that of parsing; and yet perhaps there is none which is, in general, more defectively conducted. Scarcely less useful, as a means of instruction, is the practice of correcting false syntax orally, by regular and logical forms of argument; nor does this appear to have been more ably directed towards the purposes of displine. There is so much to be done, in order to effect what is desirable in the management of these things; and so little prospect that education will ever be generally raised to a just appreciation of that study which, more than all others, forms the mind to habits of correct thinking; that, in reflecting upon the state of the science at the present time, and upon the means of its improvement, the author cannot but sympathize, in some degree, with the sadness of the learned Sanctius; who tells us, that he had "always lamented, and often with tears, that while other branches of learning were excellently taught, grammar, which is the foundation of all others, lay so much neglected, and that for this neglect there seemed to be no adequate remedy."—Pref. to Mineron. The grammatical use of language is in sweet alliance with the moral; and a similar regret seems to have prompted the following exclamation of the Christian poet:

"Sacred Interpreter of human thought, How few respect or use thee as they ought!"—Cowper.

20. No directions, either oral or written, can ever enable the heedless and the unthinking to speak or write well. That must indeed be an admirable book, which can attract levity to sober reflection, teach thoughtlessuess the true meaning of words, raise vulgarity from its fondness for low examples, awaken the spirit which attains to excellency of speech, and cause grammatical exercises to be skillfully managed, where teachers themselves are so often lamentably deficient in them. Yet something may be effected by means of a better book, if a better can be introduced. And what with stands?—Whatever there is of ignorance or error in relation to the premises. And is it arrogant to say there is much? Alas! in regard to this, as well as to many a weightler matter, one may too truly affirm, Multa non sunt sicut multis videntur—Many things are not as they seem to many. Common errors are apt to conceal themselves from the common mind; and the appeal to reason and just authority is often frustrated, because a wrong head defies both. But, apart from this, there are difficulties: multiplicity perplexes choice; inconvenience attends change; improvement requires effort; conflicting theories demand examination; the principles of the science are unprofitably disputed; the end is often divorced from the means; and much that belies the title, has been published under the name.

21. It is certain, that the printed formularies most commonly furnished for the im-

21. It is certain, that the printed formularies most commonly furnished for the important exercises of parsing and correcting, are either so awkwardly written, or negligently followed, as to make grammar, in the mouths of our juvenile orators, little else than a crude and faltering jargon. Murray evidently intended that his book of exercises should be constantly used with his grammar; but he made the examples in the former so dull and prolix, that few learners, if any, have ever gone through the series agreeably to his direction. The publishing of them in a separate volume, has probably given rise to the absurd practice of endeavouring to teach his grammar without them. The forms of parsing and correcting which this author furnishes, are also misplaced; and when found by the learner, are of little use. They are so verbose, awkward, irregular, and deficient, that the pupil must be a dull boy, or utterly ignorant of grammar, if he cannot express the facts extemporaneously in better English. When we consider how exceedingly important it is, that the business of a school should proceed without loss of time, and that, in the oral exercises here spoken of, each pupil should go through his part promptly, clearly, correctly, and fully, we cannot think it a light objection that these forms, so offer to be repeated, are hadly written. Nor does the objection lie against this writer only: Ab uno disce ownes. But the reader may demand some illustrations.

the reader may demand some illustrations.

22. First—from his etymological parsing: "O Virtue! how amiable thou art!" Here his form for the word Virtue is—"Virtue is a common substantive of the neuter gender, of the third person, in the singular number, and the nominative case." It should have been—"Virtue is a common noun, personlind proper, of the second person, singular number, feminine gender, and nominative case." And, then the definitions of all these things should have followed in regular numerical order. He gives

the class of this noun wrong, for virtue addressed becomes an individual; he gives the gender wrong, and in direct contradiction of what he says of the word, in his section gender wrong, and in direct contradiction of what he says of the word, in his section on gender; he gives the person wrong, as may be seen by the pronoun thou; he repeats the definite article three times unnecessarily, and inserts two needless prepositions, making them different where the relation is precisely the same: and at this, in a sentence of two lines, to tell the properties of the noun Virtue!—But, in etymological parsing, the definitions explaining the properties of the parts of speech, ought to be regularly and rapidly rehearsed by the pupil, till all of them are perfectly familiar, and till he can discern, with the quickness of thought, what is true or false in the description of any word in any intelligible sentence. All these the author omits; and, on account of this omission, his whole method of etymological parsing is miserably deficient.

caription of any word in any intelligible sentence. All these the author omits; and, on account of this omission, his whole method of etymological parsing is miserably deficient.

23. Secondly—from his syntactical parsing: "Vice degrades us." Here his form for the word Vice is—"Vice is a common substantive of the third person, in the singular number, and the nominative case." Now, when the learner is told that this is the syntactical parsing of a noun, and the other the etymological, he will of course conclude, that to advance from the etymology to the syntax of this part of speech, is merely to omit the gender—this being the ouly difference between the two forms. But even this difference had no other origin than the compiler's carclessness in preparing his octave book of exercises—the gender being inserted in the duodecime. And what then? I st the syntactical parsing of a noun to be precisely the same as the etymological? Never. But Murray, and all who admire and follow his work, are content to parse many words by halves—making a distinction, and yet often omitting, in both parts of the exercise, every thing which constitutes the difference. He should here have said—"Vice is a common noun of the third person, singular number, neather gender, and nominative case: and is the subject of degrades; according to the rule which says, 'A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a verb, must be in the nominative case. Because the meaning is—vice degrades." This is the whole description of the word, with its construction; and to say less, is to leave the matter unfinished.

24. Thirdly—from his "mode of verbally correcting erroneous sentences: 'The man is prudent which speaks little.' This sentence," says Murray, "is incorrect; because which is a pronoun of the neuter gender, and does not agree in gender with its antecedent man, which is masculine. But a pronoun should agree with its antecedent in gender, &c., according to the fifth rule of syntax. Which should therefore be who, a relative pronoun, agreeing with its an cation of that relative to persons, is now nearly obsolete. Can any grammarian forget that, in speaking of brute animals, male or female, we commonly use which, and never who? But if which must needs be neuter, the world is wrong in this.—As for the latter example, it is right as it stands: and the correction is, in some sort, tautological. The conjunctive adverb after makes one of the actions subsequent to the other, and gives to the visiting all the priority that is signified by the pluperfect tense. "After I visited Europe," is equivalent to "When I had visited Europe." The whole argument is therefore void.

25. These few brief illustrations, out-of thousands that might be adduced in proof of the faultiess of the common manuals, the author has rejuctantly introduced, to show that, even in the most popular books, the grammar of our language has not been treated with that care and ability which its importance demands. It is hardly to be supposed that men unused to a teacher's duties, can be qualified to compose such books. as will most facilitate his labours. Practice is a better pilot than theory. And while in respect to grammar, the evidences of failure are constantly inducing changes from one ystem to another, and almost daily giving birth to new expedients as constantly to en. in the same disappointment; perhaps the practical instructions of an experiencea cacher, long and assiduously devoted to the study, may approve themselves to many, seasonably supplying the aid and guidance which they require.

26. From the doctrines of grammar, novelty is rigidly excluded. They consist of details to which taste can lend no charm, and genius no embellishment. A writer may express them with neatness and perspicuity—their importance alone can commend them to notice. Yet, in drawing his illustrations from the stores of literature, the grammarian may select some gems of thought, which will fasten on the memory a as will most facilitate his labours. Practice is a better pilot than theory. And while,

grammarian may select some gems of thought, which will fasten on the memory a

worthy sentiment, or relieve the dullness of minute instruction. Such examples have been taken from various authors, and interspersed through the following pages.

27. The moral effect of early lessons being a point of the utmost importance, it is es-

pecially incumbent on all those who are endeavouring to confer the benefits of intellectual culture, to guard against the admission or the inculcation of any principle which lectual culture, to guard against the admission or the inculcation of any principle which may have an improper tendency, and be ultimately prejudicial to those whom they instruct. In preparing this treatise for publication, the author has been solicitous to avoid every thing that could be offensive to the most delicate and scrupulous reader; and, of the several thousands of quotations given, he trusts that the greater part will be considered valuable on account of the sentiments they contain.

28. He has not thought it needful, in a work of this kind, to encumber his pages with a useless parade of names and references, or to distinguish very minutely what is copied and what is original. All strict definitions of the same thing are necessarily similar. The doctrines of the work are, for the most part expressed in his own layer.

guage, and illustrated by that of others. Where authority was requisite, names have been inserted; and in general also where there was room. In the doctrinal parts of been inserted; and in general also where there was room. In the docurnal parts of the volume, not only quotations from others, but most examples made for the occasion, are marked with guillemets, to distinguish them from the main text; while, to almost every thing which is really taken from any other known writer, a name or reference is added. In the exercises for correction, few references have been given; because it is no credit to any author, to have written bad English. But the intelligent reader will recognize as quotations a large portion of the examples, and know from what works they are taken. To the school-boy this knowledge is neither important

29. Many of the definitions and rules of grammar have so long been public property, and have been printed under so many names, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to know to whom they originally belonged. Of these the author has freely availed him. self, though seldom without some amendment; while he has carefully abstained from every thing on which he supposed there could now be any individual claim. He has therefore fewer personal obligations to acknowledge, than most of those who are re-

puted to have written with sufficient originality on the subject.

30. In truth, not a line has here been copied with any view to save the labour of com-30. In truth, not a line has here been copied with any view to save the labour of composition; for, not to compile an English grammar from others already extant, but to compose one more directly from the sources of the art, was the task which the writer proposed to himself. And though the theme is not one upon which a man may hope to write well with little reflection, it is true, that the parts of this treatise which have cost him the most labour, are those which "consist chiefly of materials selected from the writings of others." These, however, are not the didactical portions of the book, but the proofs and examples; which, according to the custom of the ancient grammarians, ought to be taken from other authors. But so much have the makers of our rians, ought to be taken from other authors. But so much have the makers of our modern grammars been allowed to presume upon the respect and acquiescence of their readers, that the ancient exactness on this point would often appear pedantic. Many phrases and sentences either original or anonymous will therefore be found among the illustrations of the following work; for it was not supposed that any reader would demand for every thing of this kind the authority of a great name. Anonymous examples are sufficient to elucidate principles, if not to establish them; and elucidation is often the sole purpose for which an example is needed.

31. The author is well aware that no writer on grammar has any right to propose himself as authority for what he teaches; for every language, being the common property of all who use it, ought to be carefully guarded against any caprice of individuals, and especially against that which might attempt to impose erroneous or arbitrary definitions and rules. "Since the matter of which we are treating," says the pilologist of Salamanca, "is to be verified, first by reason, and then by testimony and usage, none ought to wonder if we sometimes deviate from the track of great men; for, with whatever authority any grammarian may weigh with me, unless he shall have con-

whatever authority any grammarian may weigh with me, unless he shall have confirmed his assertions by reason and also by examples, he shall win no confidence in respect to grammar. For, as Seneca says, Epistle 95, 'Grammarians are the guardians, not the authors, of language.'"—Minerva, Lib. i, Cap. ii. Yet, as what is intuitively seen to be true or false, is already sufficiently proved or detected, many points in grammar need nothing more than to be clearly stated and illustrated; nay, it would seem an injurious reflection on the understanding of the reader, to accumulate

proofs of what cannot but be evident to all who speak the language.

32. Among men of the same profession, there is an unavoidable rivalry, so far as 32. Among men of the same profession, there is an unavoidable rivalry, so far as they become competitors for the same prize; but in competition there is nothing dishonourable, while excellence alone obtains distinction, and no advantage is sought by unfair means. It is evident that we ought to account him the best grammarian, who has the most completely executed the worthiest design. But no worthy design can need a false apology; and it is worse than idle to prevaricate. That is but a spurious modesty, which prompts a man to disclaim in one way what he assumes in an other—or to underrate the duties of his office, that he may boast of having "done all that could reasonably be expected." Whoever professes to have improved the science of English grammar, must claim to know more of the matter than the generality of English grammarians; and he who begins with saying that "little can be expected" from

the office he assumes, must be wrongfully contradicted when he is held to have done nuch. Neither the ordinary power of speech, nor even the ability to write respecta-bly on common topics, makes a man a critic among critics, or enables him to judge of literary merit. And if, by virtue of these qualifications alone, a man will become a grammarian or a connoisseur, he can hold the rank only by courtesy—a courtesy which is content to degrade the character, that his inferior pretensions may be ac-

grammarian or a connoiseur, he can hold the rank only by courtesy—a courtesy which is content to degrade the character, that his inferior pretensions may be accepted and honoured under the name.

33. By the force of a late popular example, still too widely influential, grammatical authorship has been reduced in the view of many, to little or nothing more than a mere serving-up of materials anonymously borrowed; and, what is most remarkable, even for an indifferent performance of this low office, not only unnamed reviewers, but several writers of note, have not scrupled to bestow the highest praise of grammatical excellence! And thus the palm of superior skill in grammar, has been borne away by a professed compiler; who had so mean an opinion of what his theme required, as to deny it even the common courtesies of compilation. What marvel is it, that, under the wing of such authority, many writers have since sprung up, to improve upon this most happy design; while all who were competent the task, have been discouraged from attempting any thing like a complete grammar of our language? What motive shall excite a man to long-continued diligence, where such notions prevall as give mastership no hope of preference, and where the praise of his ingenuity and the reward of his labour must needs be inconsiderable, till some honoured compiler usurp them both, and bring his "most useful matter" before the world under botter auspices? If the love of learning supply such a motive, who that has generously yielded to the impulse, will not now, like Johnson, feel himself reduced to an "humble drudge"—or, like Perizonius, apologize for the apparent folly of devoting his time to such a subject as grammar? his time to such a subject as grammar?

34. Since the first edition of this work, more than two hundred new compends, many of them professing to be abstracts of *Murray* with improvements, have been added to our list of English grammars. The author has examined about one hundred and fifty, and seen advertisements or notices of nearly half as many more. Being various in character, they will of course be variously estimated; but, so far as he can judge, they are, without exception, works of little or no real merit, and not likely to judge, they are, without exception, works of little or no real merit, and not likely to be much patronized or long preserved from oblivion. For which reason, he would have been inclined entirely to disregard the petty depredations which the writers of several of them have committed upon the following digest, were it not possible that y such a frittering-away of his work he himself might one day seem to some to have copied that from others which was first taken from him. Trusting to make it manifest to men of learning, that in the production of these Institutes far more has been done for the grammar of our language, than any single hand had before achieved within the limits of a school-book, and that with perfect fairness towards other writers; he cannot but feel a wish that the integrity of his text should be preserved, whatever else may befall; and that the multitude of scribblers who judge it so needful to remgdel Murray's defective compilation, would forbear to publish under his name or their own what they find only in the following pages.

name or their own what they find only in the following pages.

36. The mere rivalry of their authorship is no subject of concern; but it is enough for any ingenuous man to have toiled for years in solitude to complete a work of public utility, without entering a warfare for life to defend and preserve it. Accidental coincidences in books are unfrequent, and not often such as to excite the suspicion of the control of the control of the such as to excite the suspicion of the control of the such as to excite the suspicion of the control of the such as to excite the suspicion of the control of the such as to excite the suspicion of the control of the such as to excite the suspicion of the control of the such as the subject of the subject of the such as the subject of the subject the most sensitive. But, though the criteria of plagiarism are neither obscure nor disthe most sensitive. But, though the criteria of plagtarism are neither obscure nor disputable, it is not easy, in this beaten track of literature, for persons of little reading to know what is, or is not, original. Dates must be accurately observed. Many things must be minutely compared. And who will undertake such a task, but he that is personally interested? Of the thousands who are forced into the paths of learning, few ever care to know, by what pioneer, or with what labour, their way was cast up for them. And even of those who are honestly engaged in teaching, not many are adequate judges of the comparative merits of the great number of books on this subject. The common notions of mankind conform more easily to fashion than to truth; and, even of some things within their reach, the majority seem, content to take their onin-

The common notions of mankind conform more easily to fashion than to truth; and, even of some things within their reach, the majority seem content to take their opinions upon trust. Hence, it is vain to expect that that which is intrinsically best, will be everywhere preferred; or that which is meritoriously elaborate, adequately appreciated. But common sense might dictate that learning is not encouraged or respected by those who, for the making of books, prefer a pair of scissors to the pen.

36. The real history of grammar is little known; and many erroneous impressions are entertained concerning it: because the story of the systems most generally received, has never been fully told; and that of a multitude now gone to oblivion, was never over the distribution of grammatical fame, which has chiefly been made by the hand of interest, we have had a strange illustration of the saying: "Unto every one that hath shall be given, and he shall have sbundance: but from him that hath one, shall be taken away even that which he hath." Some whom fortune has made popular, have been greatly overrated, if learning and talents are to be taken into the account; since it is manifest, that with no extraordinary claims to either, they have taken the very foremost rank among grammarians, and thrown the learning and talents of others into the shade, or made them tributary to their own success and popularly.

37. Few writers on grammar have been more noted than Lily and Murray. A law was made in England by Henry the Eighth, commanding Lily's grammar "only everywhere to be taught, for the use of learners and for the hurt in changing of schoolemaisters."—Pref. to Lily, p. xiv. Being long kept in force by means of a special inquiry directed to be made by the bishops at their stated visitations, this law, for three hundred years, imposed the book on all the established schools of the realm. Yet it is certain, that about one half of what has thus gone under the name of Lily, ("because," says one of the patentees, "he had so considerable a hand in the composition,") was written by Dr. Colet, by Erasmus, or by others who improved the work after Lily's death. (See Ward's Freface to the book, 1793.) And of the other half, history incidentally tells, that neither the scheme nor the text was original. The Printer's Grammar, London, 1787, speaking of the art of type-foundery, says: "The Italians in a short time brought it to that perfection, that in the beginning of the year 1474, they cast a letter not much inferior to the best types of the present age; as may be seen in a Latin Grammar written by Onnibonus Leonicenus, and printed at Padua on the 14th of January, 1474; from whom our grammarian, Lily, has taken the entire scheme of his grammar, and transcribed the greatest part thereof, without paying any regard to the memory of this author." The historian then proceeds to speak about types. See also the History of Printing, 8vo, London, 1770. This is the grammar which bears upon its titlepage: "Quam solam Regia Majestas in omnibus scholis docendam præcipit." docendam præcipit."

accendam preceipt."

38. Murray was an intelligent and very worthy man, to whose various labours in the compilation of books our schools are under many obligations. But in original thought and critical skill he fell far below most of "the authors to whom," he confesses, "the grammatical part of his compilation is principally indebted for its materials; namely, Harris, Johnson, Lowth, Priestley, Beattie, Sheridan, Walker, Coote, Blair, and Campbell."—Introd. to Gram., p. 7. It is certain and evident that he entered upon his test with the certain statistics. his task with a very insufficient preparation. His biography informs us, that, "Grammar did not particularly engage his attention, until a short time before the publication of his first work on that subject;" that, "His grammar, as it appeared in the first edition, was completed in rather less than a year—though he had an intervening illness, which for several weeks stopped the progress of the work;" and that, "the Exercises and Key were also composed in about a year."—Life of L. Murray, p. 183. From the very first sentence of his book, it appears that he entertained but a low and most erroneous idea of the duties of that sort of character in which he was about to come before the nublic. He impropedly imagined as many others have done that most erroneous idea of the duties of that sort of character in which he was about to come before the public. He improperly imagined, as many others have done, that "little can be expected" from a modern grammarian, or (as he chose to express it) "from a new compilation, besides a careful selection of the most useful matter, and some degree of improvement in the mode of adapting it to the understanding, and the gradual progress of learners."—Introd. to Gram., 8vo, p. 5: 12mo, p. 3. As if, to be master of his own art—to think and write well himself, were no part of a grammarian's business! And again, as if the jewels of scholarship, thus carefully selected, could need a burnish or a foil from other hands than those which fashioned them!

39 Murry's cone-pullides of the doctrines of grammarway sindicious. He stempted

39. Murray's general idea of the doctrines of grammar was judicious. He attempted no broad innovation on what had been previously taught; for he had neither the vanity to suppose he could give currency to novelties, nor the folly to waste his time in labours utterly nugatory. By turning his own abilities to their best account, he seems to have done much to promote and facilitate the study of our language. But his not the offer army time authorship authorship arts offer from it all various to literary more in the study of the study o to have done much to promote and facilitate the study of our language. But his notion of grammatical authorship, cuts off from it all pretence to literary merit, for the sake of doing good; and, taken in any other sense than as a forced apology for his own assumptions, his language on this point is highly injurious towards the very authors whom he copied. To justify himself, he ungenerously places them, in common with others, under a degrading necessity which no able grammarian ever felt, and which every man of genius or learning must repudiate. If none of our older grammar disprove his assertion, it is time to have a new one that will; for, to expect the perfection of grammar from him who cannot treat the subject in a style at once original and pure, is absurd. He says, "The greater part of an English grammar must necessarily be a compilation;" and adds, with reference to his own, "originality belongs to but a small portion of it. This I have acknowledged; and I trust this acknowledgement will protect me from all attacks, grounded on any supposed unjust and irregular assmall portion of it. This I have acknowledged; and I trust this acknowledgement will protect me from all attacks, grounded on any supposed unjust and irregular assumptions."—Letter, 1811. The acknowledgement on which he thus relies does not appear to have been made, till his grammar had gone through several editions. It was then inserted as follows: "In a work which professes to be a compilation, and which, from the nature and design of it, must consist chiefly of materials selected from the writings of others, it is scarcely necessary to apologize for the use which the compiler has made of his predecessors' labours, or for omitting to insert their names."—Introd. to Gram., 8vo, p. 7: 12mo, p. 4.

40. For the nature and design of a book, whatever they may be, the author alone is answerable; but the nature and design of grammar, are no less repugnant to the strain of this apology, than to the vast number of errors and defects which were overlooked by Murray in his work of compilation. There is no part of the volume more accurate, than that which he literally copied from Lowth. To the Short Introduction alone he was indebted for more than a hundred and twenty paragraphs; and even in these

there are many things obviously erroneous. Many of the best practical notes were tarers are many tunings oursously erroneous. Many or the best practical notes were taken from Priestley; yet it was he, at whose doctrines were pointed most of those "positions and discussions," which alone the author claims as original. To some, however, his own alterations may have given rise; for, where he "persuades himself he is not destitute of originality," he is often arguing against the text of his own earlier editions. Webster's well-known complaints of Murray's unfarness, had a far better editions. Webster's well-known complaints of Murray's unfairness, had are better cause than requital; for there was no generosity in ascribing them to peevishness, though the passages in question were not worth copying. On perspicuity and accuracy, about sixty pages were extracted from Blair; and it requires no great critical acumen to discover, that they are miserably deficient in both. On the law of language, there are fifteen pages from Campbell; which, with a few exceptions, are well writen. The rules for spelling are the same as Walker's: the third one, however, is a gross blunder; and the fourth, a needless repetition. Were this a place for minute criticism, blemishes almost innumerable might be pointed out. It might easily be shown that almost every rule laid down in the book for the observance of the learner, was repeatedly violated by the hand of the master. Nor is there among all those who have since abridged or modified the work, an abler grammarian than he who compiled it. Who will pretend that Flint, Alden, Comly, Jaudon, Russell, Bacon, Lyon, Miller, Alger, Maltby, Ingersoll, Fisk, Greenleaf, Merchant, Kirkham, Cooper, R. G. Greene, Woodworth, Smith, or Frost, has exhibited greater skill? It is curious to observe, how frequently a grammatical blunder committed by Murray, or some one of his predecessors, has escaped the notice of all these, as well as of many others who have found it easier to copy him than to write for themselves.

41. But Murray's grammatical works, being at once extolled in the reviews, and made common stock in trade,—being published, both in England and in America, by made common stock in trade,—being published, both in England and in America, by booksellers of the most extensive correspondence, and highly commended even by those who were most interested in the sale of them,—have been eminently successful with the public; and, in the opinion of the world, success is the strongest proof of merit. Nor has the force of this argument been overlooked by those who have written in aid of his popularity. It is the strong point in most of the commendations which have been bestowed upon Murray as a grammarian. A recent eulogist computes, that, "at least five millions of copies of his various school-books have been printed;" particularly commends him for his "candour and liberality towards rival authors;" avers that "the wort on avanying and correcting his gramper through all the strand.

"at least five millions of copies of his various school-books have been printed;" particularly commends him for his "candour and liberality towards rival authors;" avers that, "he went on, examining and correcting his grammar, through all its forty editions, till he brought it to a degree of perfection which will render it as permanent at he English language itself;" censures (and not without reason) the "presumption" of those "superficial critics" who have attempted to amend the work, and usurp his bonours; and, regarding the compiler's confession of his indebtedness to others, but as a mark of "his exemplary diffidence of his own merits," adds, (in very bad English,) "Perhaps there never was an author whose success and fame were more unexpected by himself, than Lindley Murray."—The Friend, Vol. iii, p. 33.

42. In a New-York edition of Murray's Grammar, printed in 1812, there was inserted a "Caution to the Public." by Collins & Co., his American correspondents and publishers, in which are set forth the unparalleled success and merit of the work, "as it came in purity from the pen of the author;" with an earnest remonstrance against the several revised editions which had appeared at Boston, Philadelphia, and other places, and against the unwarrantable liberties taken by American teachers, in altering the work, under pretence of improving it. In this article it is stated, "that the whole of these mutilated editions he been seen and examined by Lindley Murray himself, and that they have met with his decided disapprobation. Every rational mind," continue these gentlemen, "will agree with him, that, 'the rights of living authors, and the interests of science and literature, demand the abolition of this unqueneous practice." Here, then, we have the opinion and feeling of Murray himself upon this tender point of right. Here we see the tables turned, and other men judging it "scarcely necessary to apologize for the use which they have made of their predecessors' labours."

43. It is not intended by the introduction o

43. It is not intended by the introduction of these notices, to impute to Murray any thing more or less than what his own words plainly imply; except those inaccuracies and deficiencies which still disgrace his work as a literary performance, and which of course he did not discover. He himself knew that he had not brought the book to course he did not discover. He himself knew that he had not brought the book to such perfections as has been ascribed to it; for, by way of apology for his frequent alterations, he says, "Works of this nature admit of repeated improvements; and are, perhaps, never complete." But it is due to truth to correct erroneous impressions; and, in order to obtain from some an impartial examination of the following pages, it seems necessary first to convince them that it is possible, to compose a better grammar than Murray's, without being particularly indebted to him. If this treatise is nosuch, a great deal of time has been thrown away upon a useless project; and if it is, the achievement is no fit subject for either pride or envy. It differs from his, and from every grammar based upon his, as a new map, drawn from actual and minute surveys, differs from an old one, compiled chiefly from others still older and confessedly still more imperfect. The region and the scope are essentially the same; the tracing and the colouring are more original; and (if the reader can pardon the suggestion) perhaps more accurate and vivid.

44. He who makes a new grammar, does nothing for the advancement of learning. unless his performance excel all earlier ones designed for the same purpose; and no-thing for his own honour, unless such excellence result from the exercise of his own ingenuity and taste. A good style naturally commends itself to every reader—even to him who cannot tell why it is worthy of preference. Hence there is reason to believe, nim who cannot tell why it is worthy of preference. Hence there is reason to believe, that the true principles of practical grammar, deduced from custom and sanctioned by time, will never be generally superseded by any thing which individual caprice may substitute. In the republic of letters, there will always be some who can distinguish merit; and it is impossible that these should ever be converted to any whimstal theory of language, which goes to make void the learning of past ages. There will always be some who can discern the difference between originality of style, and innovation in doctrine—between a due regard to the opinions of others, and an actual usurpation of ne some who can discern the difference between originality of style, and innovation in doctrine—between a due regard to the opinions of others, and an actual usurpation of their text; and it is incredible that these should ever be satisfied with any mere complication of grammar, or with any such authorship as either confesses or betrays the writer's own incompetence. For it is not true, that "an English grammar must necessarily be," in any considerable degree, if at all, "a compilation;" nay, on such a theme, and in "the grammatical part" of the work, all compilation, beyond a fair use of authorities regularly conted. theme, and in "the grammatical part" of the work, an computation, beyond a rail use of authorities regularly quoted, or of materials either voluntarily furnished or free to all, most unavoidably implies—not conscious "ability," generously doing honour to rival merit—nor "exemplary diffidence," modestly veiling its own—but inadequate skill and inferior talents, bribing the public by the spoils of genius, and seeking precedence by such means as not even the purest desire of doing good can justify.

cedence by such means as not even the purest desire of doing good can justify.

45. All praise of excellence must needs be comparative, because the thing itself is so. To excel in grammar, is but to know better than others wherein grammatical excellence consists. Hence there is no fixed point of perfection beyond which such learning may not be carried. The limit to improvement is not so much in the nature of the subject, as in the powers of the mind, and in the inducements to exert them upon a theme so humble and so uninviting. Dr. Johnson suggests in his masterly preface, "that a whole life annot be spent upon syntax and etymology, and that even a whole life would not be sufficient." Who then will suppose, in the face of such facts and confessions as have been exhibited, that either in the faulty publications of Murray, or among the various modifications of them by other hands, we have any such work as deserves to be made a permanent standard of instruction in English grammar?—The author of this treatise will not pretend that it is perfect; though he has bestowed upon it no inconsiderable pains, that the narrow limits to which it must needs be confined, might be filled up to the utmost advantage of the learner, as well as to the best direction and greatest relief of the teacher.

direction and greatest relief of the teacher.

direction and greatest relief of the teacher.

46. A Kev to the Oral Exercises in False Syntax, is inserted in the Grammar, that the pupil may be enabled fully to prepare himself for that kind of class recitations. Being acquainted with the rule, and having seen the correction, he may be expected to state the error and the reason for the change, without embarrassment or delay. It is the opinion of some teachers, that no key in aid of the student should be given. Accordingly many grammars, not destitute of exercises in false syntax, are published without either formules of correction, or a Key to show the right reading. But English grammar, in any extensive exhibition of it, is a study dry and difficult enough for the young, when we have used our best endeavours to free it from all obscurities and doubts. The author thinks he has learned from experience, that, with explicit help of this sort, most pupils will not only gain more knowledge of the art in a given time, but in the end find their acquisitions more satisfactory and more permanent.

47. A separate Kev to the Exercises for Writing, is published for the convenience of teachers and private learners. For an obvious reason this Key should not be put into the hands of the school-boy. Being a distinct volume, it may be had, bound by itself or with the Grammar. Those teachers who desire to exercise their pupils orally in correcting false grammar without a Key, can at any time make use of this series of examples for such purpose.

in correcting tales grammar without s acy, can set any once made use of this server of examples for such purpose.

48. From the first edition of the following treatise, there was made by the author, for the use of young learners, a brief abstract, entitled, "The Frist Lines of English Grammar;" in which are embraced all the leading doctrines of the original work, with a new series of examples for their application in parsing. Much that is important in the grammar of the language, was necessarily excluded from this epitome; nor was it designed for those who can learn a larger book without wearing it out. But economy as well as convenience demands small and chean treatises for children; and omy, as well as convenience, demands small and cheap treatises for children and those teachers who approve of this system of grammatical instruction, will find many reasons for preferring the First Lines to any other compend, as an introduction to the study of these Institutes.

49. Having undertaken and prosecuted this work, with the hope of facilitating the study of the English Language, and thus promoting the improvement of the young, the author now presents his finished labours to the candour and discernment of those who to whom is committed the important business of instruction. How far he has succeeded in the execution of his design, is willingly left to the just decision of those who are qualified to judge.

Revised, Lynn, Mass., 1854. GOOLD BROWN.

POSTSCRIPT TO THE PREFACE.

THE school-book now pretty well-known as "Brown's Institutes of English Grammar," was my first attempt at authorship in the character of a grammarian; and, satisfactory as it has been to the many thousands who have used it, it has neveral theless, like all other not incorrigible attempts in this line, been found susceptible of sundry important emendations. So that I must believe with Murray, that, "Works of this nature admit of repeated improvements; and are, perhaps, never complete." It cannot, however, be said in my favour, as it has been in commendation of this author, that, "He went on examining and correcting his grammar throughall its forty editions, till he brought it to the utmost degree of perfection;" but something has been done in this way, three or four of the early editions of the Institutes having been severally retouched and improved by the author's hand; and now, an undiminished demand for the work having continued to spread its reputation, I have at length the satisfaction to have endeavoured yet once again to render it still more worthy of the public favour.

The time which has elapsed since the author first published this work, has been mainly spent in labours and studies tending very directly to enlarge and mature his knowledge of English Grammar; and, especially, to better his acquaintance with the great variety of books and essays which have been written upon it. The principal result of these labours and studies has been given to the world in his large work entitled "The Grammar of English Grammara." To conform the future editions of these Institutes more nearly to the text of this large Grammar, to supply some deficiences which have been thought to lessen the comparative value of the former work, to divide the book more systematically into chapters and subdivisions, and to correct a few typographical errors which had crept in, were the objects contemplated in the revision which has now been effected.

In making these improvements, I have not forgotten that alterations in a popular class-book are, on some accounts, exceedingly undesirable. The writer who ventures at all upon them, is ever liable to subject his patrons and best friends to more or less inconvenience; and for this he should be very sure of having presented, in every instance, an ample compensation. It is believed that the changes which the present revision exhibits, though they are neither few nor unimportant, need not prevent, in schools, a concurrent use of old editions with the new, till the former may be sufficiently worn out. What has been added or changed, will therefore lack no justificant on and the author will rest, with sufficient assurance, in the hope that the intelligent patronage which has hitherto been giving more and more publicity to his earliest teachings, will find, decidedly, and without mistake, in this improved form of the work, the best common school Grammar now extant.

GOOLD BROWN.

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INSTITUTES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking, reading, and writing the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthography,

Etymology. Syntax, and Prosody.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words,

and spelling.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government,

and arrangement, of words in sentences.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and

versification.

PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

CHAPTER L-OF LETTERS.

A Letter is an alphabetic mark, or character, commonly representing some elementary sound of a word.

An elementary sound of a word, is a simple or primary sound of the human voice, used in speaking.

The sound of a letter is commonly called its power: when any letter of a word is not sounded, it is said to be silent or mute.

The letters in the English alphabet, are twenty-six; the simple or primary sounds in the language, are about thirty-six or thirty-seven.

A knowledge of the letters consists in an acquaintance with these four sorts of things; their names, their classes,

their powers, and their forms.

The letters are written, or printed, or painted, or engraved, or embossed, in an infinite variety of shapes and sizes; and yet are always the same, because their essential properties do not change, and their names, classes, and powers, are mostly permanent.

The following are some of the different sorts of types, or styles of letters, with which every reader should be

early acquainted:-

1. The Roman: A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

2. The Italic: A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h,

I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

3. The Script: A a, B l, C c, D d, E e, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Jj, Hh, Ll, Mm, Nen, Oo, Pp, Qg, Rr, Ss, TI, Uu, Vv, Ww, & a, Yy, Zz,

4. The Old English: A a, B b, C c, D d, C e, ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Ij, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Pp, Qq, Rr. Ss. Ct, Un, Dv, Ww, Xx, Dy, Z3.

OBSERVATIONS.

OBS. 1.-LANGUAGE, in the primitive sense of the term, embraced only

Oss. 1.—LANGUAGE, in the primitive sense of the term, embraced only vocal expression, or human speech uttered by the mouth; but, after letters were invented to represent articulate sounds, language became twofold, spoken and written; so that the term language, now signifies, any series of sounds or letters formed into words and employed for the expression of thought. Oss. 2.—Letters claim to be a part of language, not merely because they represent articulate sounds, or spoken words, but because they form words of themselves, and have the power to become intelligible signs of thought, even independently of sound. Literature being the counterpart of speech, and more plenteous in words, the person who cannot read and write, is about as deficient in language, as the well instructed deaf mute: perhaps more so: for conjouences, even of speech, results from letters.

as dencient in language, as the well instructed dear induc; perhaps here so; for copiousness, even of speech, results from letters.

Oss. 3.—For the formation of words, letters have some important advantages over articulate or syllabic sounds, though the latter communicate thought more expeditiously. The written symbols subdivide even the least parts of spoken language, which are syllables, reducing them to a few

combinable elements; and are themselves thereby reduced to a manageable number,—even to fewer than the elements which they represent. But the great advantage of recorded language is its permanence, with its unlimited

power of circulation and transmission.

Obs. 4.—As a letter taken singly is commonly the sign of some elementary sound, and of nothing more, so the primary combinations of letters are often exhibited as mere notations of syllabic sounds, and not as having the significance of words. Silent letters occur only in the particular positions which custom or etymology has given them in certain words; and, though mute, they are still named and classed according to the powers usually pertaining to the same characters.

Obs. 5.—It is suggested above, that a knowledge of the letters implies an acquaintance with their names, their classes, their powers, and their forms. Under these four heads, therefore, I shall briefly present the facts which seem to be most worthy of the learner's attention at first, and shall reserve for the appendix a more particular account of these important elements.

I. NAMES OF THE LETTERS.

The names of the letters, as now commonly spoken and written in English, are A, Bee, Cee, Dee, E, Eff, Gee, Aitch, I, Jay, Kay, Ell, Em, En, O, Pee, Kue, Ar, Ess, Tee, U, Vee, Double-u, Ex, Wy, Zee.

OBSERVATIONS.

Obs. 1.—The names of the letters, as expressed in the modern languages, are mostly framed with reference to their powers, or sounds. Yet is there in English no letter of which the name is always identical with its power; for A, E, I, O, and U, are the only letters which can name themselves, and all these have other sounds than those which their names express. The consonants are so manifestly insufficient to form any name of themselves alone, and so palpable is the difference between the nature and the name of each, that, did we not know how education has been trifled with, it would be hard to believe the assertion of Murray, that, "They are frequently confounded

by writers on grammar!"
Oss. 2.—Those letters which name themselves, take for their names those sounds which they usually represent at the end of an accented syllable; thus the names, A, E, I, O, U, are uttered with the sounds given to the same letters in the first syllables of the other names, Abel, Enoch, Isaac, same letters in the first syllables of the other names, Aoet, Lacch, Isaac, Obed, Urim; or in the first syllables of the common words, paper, penal, pilot, potent, pupil. The other letters, most of which can never be perfectly sounded alone, have names in which their powers are combined with other sounds more vocal; as, Bee, Cee, Dee,—EU, Em, En,—Jay, Kay, Kue. But, in this respect, the terms Aitch and Double-u are irregular; because they

have no obvious reference to the powers of the letters thus named.

Ons. 3.—The names of the letters, like those of the days of the week, are words of a very peculiar kind; being nouns that are at once both proper and common. For, in respect to rank, character, and design, each letter is a thing strictly individual and identical—that is, it is ever one and the same; uning strictly individual and identical—that is, it is ever one and the same yet, in an other respect, it is a comprehensive sort, embracing individuals both various and numberless. The name of a letter, therefore, should always be written with a capital, as a proper noun, at least in the singular number; and should form the plural regularly, as an ordinary appellative. Thus: (if we adopt, as we ought, the names now most generally used in English schools:) A, Aes; Bee, Bees; Cee, Cees; Dee, Dees; E, Ees; Eff, Effs; Gee, Gees; Aitch, Aitches; I, Ies; Jay, Jays; Kay, Kays; Ell, Ells; Em, Ems; En, Ens; O, Oes; Pee, Pees; Kue, Kues; Ar, Ars; Esses; Tee, Tees; U, Ues; Vee, Vees; Double-u, Double-ues; Ex, Exes; Wy, Wies; Zee, Zees.

Ons. 4.—Letters, like all other things, must be learned and applied of her OBS. 4.—Letters, like all other things, must be learned and spoken of by

their names; nor can they be spoken of otherwise; yet, as the simple characters are better known and more easily exhibited than their written names, the former are often substituted for the latter, and are read as the words for which they are assumed. Hence the orthography of these words has hitherto been left too much to mere fancy or caprice; no certain method of writing them has been generally inculcated; so that many who think themselves well educated, would be puzzled to name on paper these simple elements of

well educated, would be puzzied to mame on paper that all learning.

Obs. 5.—In many, if not in all languages, the five vowels, A, E, I, O, U, name themselves; but they name themselves differently to the ear, according to the different ways of uttering them in different languages. And as the name of a consonant necessarily requires one or more vowels, that also may be affected in the same manner. But, in every language, there should be a known way both of writing and of speaking every name in the series; and that, if there is nothing to hinder, should be made conformable to the genius of the language. For the names of the letters, in any language, are, in reality, words of that language, and not likely to be very suitable for the same purpose in any other.

same purpose in any other.

Oss. 6.—The letters, once learned, may be used unnamed; and so are they used, always, except in oral spelling, or when some of their own number are to be particularized. The chief use of the written names is, to preserve and to be particularized. The cline use of the traces in the lates is, to preserve an teach those which are spoken;—to record current practice, in the hope of thereby preventing or lessening diversity: for, as Walker observes, "The names of the letters ought to have no diversity."—Principles, No. 483.

Oss. 7.—The occasions, however, for naming the letters are so frequent, and lists of their names are given in so many books, that one cannot but

marvel at the absence of these words from the columns of our dictionaries, marver at the assence of these words from the columns of our dictionaries, and at the errors found elsewhere concerning them. So discrepant and erroneous are the modes of writing them adopted by authors of spelling-books, and even by our best authorities—Walker, Webster, Murray, Churchill, W. Allen, and others—that any common school-boy would guess their forms quite as well. Even John Walker, in his "Principles of English Pronunciation," spells five or six of them wrong; commences all of them with small type, as reckoning them common nouns only; fixes a gratuitous and silly "diversity" in five of them with his own hand; and contradicts himself by preferring and to issuad at first and issuad to the state of the second to add at lest!

preferring zed to izzard at first, and izzard to zed at last!

Ones. 8.—In every nation that is not totally illiterate, custom must have oss. 8.—In every nation that is not totally linterate, custom must have established for the letters a certain set of names, which are the only true ones, and which are of course to be preferred to such as are local, or obsolete, or unauthorized. Sundry examples of these objectionable sorts of names may indeed be cited from our school literature; for, in the lapse of ages, usage has changed in a few instances, and, in their rash ignorance, some authors of A-Bee-Cee books have taught, in lieu of the right names, both archaisms and innovations at the same time; while many others, thinking the naming of letters a matter not worth their attention, have omitted it altogether. I have recorded above the free English names of all the letters as they are have recorded above the true English names of all the letters, as they are now used, and as they have been most fitly, and perhaps most generally, used thus far in the nineteenth century; and, if there could be in human works any thing unchangeable, I should wish, (with due deference to all schemers and fault-finders,) that these names might remain the same and in good use forever.

II. CLASSES OF THE LETTERS.

The letters are divided into two general classes, vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone; as, a, e, o.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel; as, b, c, d.

The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes w and y. All the other letters are consonants.

Wor y is called a consonant when it precedes a vowel heard in the same syllable; as in wine, twine, whine; ye, yet, youth: in all other cases, these letters are vowels; as in newly, dewy, eye-brow; Yssel, Ystadt, yttria.

CLASSES OF CONSONANTS.

The consonants are divided into semivowels and mutes.

A semivowel is a consonant which can be imperfectly sounded without a vowel, so that at the end of a syllable its sound may be protracted; as, l, n, z, in al, an, az.

A mute is a consonant which cannot be sounded at all without a vowel, and which at the end of a syllable suddenly stops

the breath; as, k, p, t, in ak, ap, at.

The semivowels are f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, w, x, y, z, and c and g soft: but w or y at the end of a syllable, is a vowel; and the sound of c, f, g, h, j, s, or x, can be protracted only as an aspirate, or strong breath.

Four of the semivowels,—l, m, n, and r,—are termed *liquids*, on account of the fluency of their sounds; and four others,—v, w, y, and z,—are likewise more vocal than the aspirates.

The mutes are eight; b, d, k, p, q, t, and c and g hard: three of these,—k, q, and c hard,—sound exactly alike: b, d, and g hard, stop the voice less suddenly than the rest.

OBSERVATIONS.

Oss. 1.—The foregoing division of the letters is of very great antiquity, and, in respect to its principal features, sanctioned by almost universal authority. Aristotle, three hundred and thirty years before Christ, divided the Greek letters into vocales, semivocale, and mutes, and declared that no-syllable could be formed without a vowel. Some modern writers, however, not well satisfied with this ancient distribution of the elements of learning, have contradicted the Stagirite, and divided both sounds and letters into new classes, with various new names. But, so far as I can see, they have thereby effected no important improvement; and, since mere innovation is not in itself desirable in such cases, the old scheme is here still preferred.

new classes, with various new names. But, so far as I can see, they have thereby effected no important improvement; and, since mere innovation is not in itself desirable in such cases, the old scheme is here still preferred.

Obs. 2.—Dr. Rush, author of "the Philosophy of the Human Voice," resolves the letters into "tonice, subtonice, and atonice;" and avers that "consonants alone may form syllables." S. Kirkham too, though his Grammar teaches the old doctrine as given by Murray, prefers in his Elocution the instructions of Rush; disparages "the heary division of the letters of our alphabet into vowels and consonants;" affirms that, "A consonant is not only capable of being perfectly sounded without the help of a vowel, but, moreover, of forming, like a vowel, a separate syllable;" (p. 32;) commends Rush's new "division and classification of the elementary characters of our language, in accordance with their use in intonation;" puts an obsolete k into each of the Doctor's new names, giving to novelties the garb of antiques; tells of "the Tonicks, the Subtonicks, and the Atonicks;" and, under these three heads, exhibits his thirty-five "elements" of the English tongue, by means of Italics and the splitting of syllables, thus:—

1. "The Tonicks, twelve: A-te, a-rk, a-ll, a-t, ee-l, e-rr, e-nd, i-de, i-t, o-ld, 00-ze, ou-t

2. "The Subtonicks, fourteen: B-oat, d-are, g-ilt, v-ice, z-one, y-e, w-o, th-at, a-z-ure, so-ng, l-ate, m-ate, n-ot, r-oe.
3. "The Atonicks, nine: U-p, s-t, lar-k, i-f, thi-s, h-e, wh-at, th-in, blu-sh."

—Kirkham's Elocution, pp. 32 and 33.

OBS. 8.—As a mode of classing the *letters* of the alphabet, (which character is claimed for it,) this arrangement has no fitness whatever. As a classification of the *sounds* of the language, it is less objectionable, but still very tion of the sounds of the language, it is less objections one, our stair very faulty. Its vowel powers are too few, and yet the list contains two which are questionable: for ou in out is a proper diphthong; and, according to Walker, e in err and e in end are sounded alike. The term "i-de," which is given for a "word," is not properly such; and the term "g-lit" which is example of the hard g, because g before i is usually soft, like j. How the power of wh differs from the sounds of h and w united, I see not, though any day and elementary. The assersundry modern authors affirm that it is simple and elementary. The assertion, that "consonants alone may form syllables," is a flat absurdity; it implies that consonants are not consonants, but vowels!

OBS. 4.—In Comstock's Elecution, we have the following statement: "The elements, as well as the letters by which they are represented, are usually divided into two classes, Vowels and Consonants. A more philosophical division, however, is into three classes, Vowels, Subvowels, and Aspirates. The vowels are pure vocal sounds; their number is fifteen: they are heard in ale, arm, all, an, eve, and, sie, in, old, lose, on, tube, up, full, our. The subvocals have a vocality, but inferior to that of the vowels; their number is fourteen; they are heard in how day, are fight, saind, an eagle applications. fourteen: they are heard in bow, day, gay, light, mind, no, song, roll, then, vile, wo, yoke, sone, azure. The aspirates are made with the whispering breath, and, consequently, have no vocality; they are nine in number; and are heard in fame, but, kite, pit, sin, shade, tin, thin, what."—Pp. 19 and 20.

One. 5.—This again is a classification of sounds, and not of the letters. To

OBS. 5.—This again is a classification of sounds, and not of the letters. To call it "a more philosophical division" of the letters, is a ridiculous absurdity. For, of the twenty-six letters, it throws out four,—c, j, q, and x,—because their sounds may be otherwise expressed; while ten repetitions of the same letter with a different sound, and six combinations of different letters, making sixteen unalphabetical items, are allowed to swell the number of "elements" to thirty-eight: ou and wh being improperly reckoned among them. The definitions, too, are each of them inconsistent with the fact that all these elements may be either whippered or spoken aloud, at pleasure.

Obs. 6.—The elementary sounds of the language being more numerous than the letters of the alphabet, and not very philosophically distributed among them, no accurate classification of either species can be exactly adapted

among them, no accurate classification of either species can be exactly adapted to the other; and to divide the powers of the letters into one set of classes, and then divide the letters themselves, with reference to their powers, into an other set, as a few late writers have done, seems to be neither free from objection, nor very necessary to the purposes of instruction. Such is the scheme in Covell's "Digest," and also in Greene's "Elements of English Grammar," where the sounds used in English, being reckoned forty by the the author, and forty-one by the former, are divided into "Vocals, Subvocals, and Aspirates," with an additional class of "Cognates," or "Correlatives," and then the letters are classed as "vocals and consonants," with
the suggestion that consonants are either "subvocals" or "aspirates."

Obs. 7.—By way of definition, Covell says, "Vocals consist of pure voice
only. Subvocals consist of voice and breath united. Aspirates consist of pure
treath only. A consolir a letter used to represent a rocal.

only. Subvocals consist of roce and oreath united. Aspirates consist of pure breath only. A voxed is a letter used to represent a vocal. A consonant is a letter used to represent a vocal or aspirate."—Pp. 11 and 16. Greene says, "The vocals consist of pure tone only. The subvocals consist of tone united with breath. The aspirates consist of pure breath only. Those letters which represent vocals are called vowels. Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates are called vowels. Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates are called consonants."—Pp. 2 and 5. Now, since all the elements of words, except silent letters, may be whispered, and whispering consists in the articulation "of pure breath only," may not a little whispering show the unfitness of all these definitions?

One. 8.—Greene says, "By what rule such sounds as f, s, or c soft, which have no vocality whatever, can be called semirowels, it is impossible to see."

—Elements of E. Gram., p. 8. This remark must have originated in some wrong notion of what vocality is. Again, it is forgotten that not "sounds, but letters, are by the definition made semivowels. It there is any error in regarding a hiss as half a voice, or in calling "f, s, or c soft" a semivowel, Aristotle himself is answerable for it, as may be seen in the twentieth chap-Arisotte linear is answerable or it, as may be seen in the webstern that the ter of his Poetics. But S. S. Greene contradicts the old philosopher not only by denying all vocality to some of his semivowels, but also by finding the nature of "subcocale" in both of his examples of a mute; namely in ghard and d, or the corresponding Greek letters. See "Table of Elementary Sounds," in Greene's Elements, edition of 1853; wherein our sibilant s is blunderingly stereotyped as being an element of two or three different sorts, and as having a for its "correlation". and as having v for its " correlative."

Oss. 9.—By an improper recognition of sounds for letters, and of combinations for simples, some authors absurdly reckon the consonants alone to be more numerous than are all the alphabetic characters together. Thus the Rev. Dr. Mandeville: "A consonant is a letter which, as the name implies, cannot be sounded without the aid of a vowel. The consonants are b, c, d. ch, s, s, t, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, s; to which must be added th, ch, sh, zh, wh, ng; being plainly elementary sounds, and as such belonging to the alphabet, though not formally included in it."—Course of Reading, p. 13.

Oss. 10.—The distinction between vowels and consonants is generally obvious and case and

obvious and easy enough; and yet, in reference to certain sounds or letters, when not pure, but combined, it is often very difficult and arbitrary. Some few of our grammarians have long taught that w and y, as well as a, i, o, u, are always vowels. The most common doctrine is, that w and y are somew, are always vowels. The most common coordine is, that w and y are slower times vowels and sometimes consonants, and that a, e, i, o, and u, are always vowels. But, the sound of initial w being thought to be sometimes heard in u, likewise in o, and the sound of initial y sometimes in e, or i, or u, some writers have recognized one; some, two; some, three; and a few, all four, of these letters, as well as w and y, as being sometimes consonants; thus making a vast diversity of teaching concerning the classification of the six—a diversity which also extends itself equally into each of the new schemes of elements remarked upon above.

Obs. 11.—Dr. Lowth, and his improver, Churchill, also Sheridan, and his Oss. 11.—Dr. Lowth, and his improver, Churchill, also Sheridan, and his copier, Jones, represent a, e, i, o, u, w, and y as being invariably vowels, and as having no sounds peculiar to consonants. This opinion makes easy and simple the division of the letters, but it greatly swells the number of diphthongs, shows not why the initial w or y follows a vowel without histus, and accounts not for the use of a, in preference to an, before nouns beginning with w or y: as, a wall, a yard; not an wall, an yard.
Oss. 12.—Dr. Webster, in his great American Dictionary, says, "Y is sometimes used as a consonant."—Introd., p. lxxviii. Concerning a, e, i, o, u, and u, he appears to agree with Lowth, and the others above named. Fisher, a London grammarian of the last century, treated w as being always

and w, he appears to agree with Lowth, and the others above named. Fisher, a London grammarian of the last century, treated w as being always a consonant, and y as being sometimes such. Brightland, Johnson, Murray, Walker, Ward Wells, Worcester, and others,—a majority of those who treat of the letters,—maintain the division which I have adopted above.

Oss. 18.—Dr. Mandeville says, "I, y, and y, are sometimes consonants."

—Course of Reading, p. 9. Dr. Pinneo, uttering a strange solecism, and ambiguity of construction, says, "All the letters of the alphabet, except the vowels, and sometimes i, u, w, and y, are consonants."—Analytical Gram., Stereotype Elition of 1858, p. 7. L. T. Covell says, "All, except a, may be consonants."—Digest of E. Gram., p. 16.

Oss. 14.—Sheridan and Jones divide the consonants into mutes and semi-vowels, then subdivide the mutes into "pure and impure," and the semi-

vowels, then subdivide the mutes into "pure and impure," and the semi-vowels into "vocal and aspirated." In lieu of this, some, among whom are Herries and Bicknell, divide the consonants into three sorts, "half vowels, aspirates, and mutes." Many divide them into labials, dentals, linguals, polaries, and mutes and search and applicable and the search and mutes. tals, and nasals; classes which refer to the lips, teeth, tongue, palate, and nose, as the effective organs of their utterance. Obs. 15.—Certain consonants or consonantal sounds are often distinguished in pairs, by way of contrast with each other, the one being called flat and the other sharp: as, b and p; d and t; g hard and k; j and ch; v and f; the flat and th sharp; s and sharp s; zh and sh. These, with reference to each other, are sometimes termed correlatives or cognates.

III. POWERS OF THE LETTERS.

The powers of the letters are properly those elementary sounds which their figures are used to represent; but letters formed into words, are capable of communicating thought independently of sound.

The vowel sounds which form the basis of the English language, and which ought therefore to be perfectly familiar to every one who speaks it, are those which are heard at the beginning of the words, ate, at, ah, all, eel, ell, isle, ill, old, on, ooze, use, us, and that of u in bull.

In the formation of words or syllables, some of these fourteen primary sounds may be joined together, as in ay, oil, out, owl; and all of them may be preceded or followed by certain motions and positions of the lips and tongue, which will severally convert them into other terms in speech. Thus the same essential sounds may be changed into a new series of words by an f; as, fate, fat, far, fall, feel, fell, file, fill, fold, fond, fool, fuse, fuss, full. Again, into as many more with a p; as, pate, pat, par, pall, peel, pell, pile, pill, pole, pond, pool, pule, purl, pull.

The simple consonant sounds in English are twenty-two: they are marked by b, d, f, g hard, h, k, l, m, n, ng, p, r, s, sh, t, th sharp, th flat, v, w, y, z, and zh. But zh is written only to show the sound of other letters; as of

s in pleasure, or z in azure.

All these sounds are heard distinctly in the following words: buy, die, fie, guy, high, kie, lie, my, nigh, eying, pie, rye, sigh, shy, tie, thigh, thy, vie, we, ye, zebra, seizure. Again: most of them may be repeated in the same word, if not in the same syllable; as in bibber, diddle, fifty, giggle, high-hung, cackle, lily, mimic, ninny, singing, pippin, mirror, hissest, flesh-brush, tittle, thinketh, thither, wird, witwal, union, dizzies, vision.

The possible combinations and mutations of the twenty-six letters of our alphabet, are many millions of millions. But those clusters which are unpronounce-

able, are useless. Of such as may be easily uttered, there are more than enough for all the purposes of use-

ful writing, or the recording of speech.

Thus it is, that from principles so few and simple as about six or seven and thirty plain elementary sounds, represented by characters still fewer, we derive such a variety of oral and written signs, as may suffice to explain or record all the sentiments and transactions of all men in all ages.

OBSERVATIONS.

One. 1.—Different vowel sounds are produced by opening the mouth differently, and placing the tongue in a peculiar manner for each; but the voice may vary in loudness, pitch, or time, and still utter the same vowel

Obs. 2.—Each of the vowel sounds may be variously expressed by letters. Oss. 2.—Each of the vowel sounds may be variously expressed by letters. About half of them are sometimes words: the rest are seldom, if ever, used alone even to form syllables. But the reader may easily learn to utter them all, separately, according to the foregoing series. Let us note them as plainly as possible: eigh, å, ah, awe, ëh, ë, eye, 1, oh, ö, oo, yew, ü, thus the eight long sounds, eigh, ah, awe, eh, eye, oh, ooh, yew, are, or may be words; but the six less vocal, called the short vowel sounds, as in at, et, it, ot, put, are commonly heard only in connexion with consonants; and expet the first, which is perhaps the most frequent sound of the vowel A or a—a sound sometimes given to the word a, perhaps most generally; as in the phrase, "twice à day."

Oss. 3.—With us, the consonants J and X represent, not simple, but complex sounds: 1 once they are never doubled. J is equivalent to dah; and

plex sounds: I ace they are never doubled. J is equivalent to dsh; and X, either to ks or to gs. The former ends no English word, and the latter begins none. To the initial X of foreign words, we always give the simple

begins none. To the initial X of foreign words, we always give the simple sound of Z; as in Xerces, xebco.

One. 4.—The consonants C and Q have no sounds peculiar to themselves.

Q has always the power of k, and is constantly followed by u and some vowel or two more in the same syllable; as in quake, quest, quest, quoit. C is hard, like k, before a, o, and u; and soft, like s, before e, s, and y: thus the syllables ca, cs, ci, co, cu, cy, are pronounced ka, se, si, ko, ku, sy. S before c preserves the former sound, but coalesces with the latter; hence the syllables, sca, sce, sci, sco, scu, scy, are sounded ska, se, si, sko, sku, sy. Cs and cs have sometimes the sound of sh; as in ocean, social. Uh commonly represents the sound of tah: as in church.

sents the sound of tah; as in church.

One. 5.—G, as well as C, has different sounds before different vowels. G is always hard, or guttural, before a, o, and u; and generally soft, like j, before a, i, or y: thus the syllables, ga, gs, gi, go, gu, gy, are pronounced ga, js, js, go, gu, jy.

One. 6.—The imperfections of the English alphabet have been the subject

Oss. 6.—The imperfections of the English alphabet have been the subject of much comment, and sundry schemes for its reformation have successively appeared and disappeared without effecting the purpose of any one of their authors. It has been thought that there ought to be one character, and only one, for each simple sound in the language; but, in attempting to count the several elementary sounds which we use, our orthoepists have arrived at a remarkable diversity of conclusions. Bicknell, copying Martin's Physico-Grammatical Essay, says, "The simple sounds," originally necessary to speech, "were in no wise to be reckoned of any certain number: by the first men they were determined to no more than ten, as some suppose; as others, fifteen or twenty; it is however certain that mankind in general sever exceed twenty simple sounds; and of these only five are reckoned strictly such."—Bicknell's Gram., Part ii, p. 4.

Ons. 7.—The number of oral elements is differently reckoned by our

critics, because they do not agree among themselves concerning the identity or the simplicity, the sameness or the singleness, of some of the sounds in question; and also because it is the practice of all, or nearly all, to admit as elementary some sounds which differ from each other only in length or shortness, and some which are not conceived to be entirely simple in themselves. The circumstances of the case seem to make it impossible to find out for a

The circumstances of the case seem to make it impossible to find out for a cortainty what would be a perfect alphabet for our tongue.

Oss, 8.—Sheridan, taking i and u for diphthongs, h for "no letter," and the power of h for no sound, made the elements of his oratory twenty-eight. Jones followed him implicitly, saying, "The number of simple sounds in our tongue is twenty-eight, 9 Vowels, and 19 Consonants. H is no letter, but merely a mark of aspiration."—Provodial Gram., p. xiv. Bolles asys, "The number of simple vowel and consonant sounds in our tongue is twenty-eight, and one pure aspiration h, making in all twenty-nine."—Octavo Dict., Introd., p. 9. Walker recognized several more; but I know not whether he has anywhere told us have many there are.

Introd., p. 9. Walker recognized several has anywhere told us how many there are.

has anywhere told us how many there are.

Oss. 9.—Lindley Murray enumerates at first thirty-six well known sounds, and the same thirty-six that are given in the main text above; but he afterwards, contradicting certain teachings of his Spelling-Book, acknowledges one more, making thirty-seven—the third sound of e—"An obscure and scarcely perceptible sound: as in open, lucre, participle."—Gram., p. 11.

Comstock, who does not admit the obscure e, says, "There are thirty-eight elements in the English alphabet, and * * * a deficiency of twelve letters."—Electron, p. 19. Wells, deducting C, Q, and X, says, "The remaining twenty-three letters are employed to represent about forty elementary sounds." School Gram., 113th Th., p. 42. His first edition stated the number of sounds to be "forty-one."—P. 36.

Oss. 10.—For the sake of the general principle, which we always regard

sounds to be "forty-one."—P. 36.

Oss. 10.—For the sake of the general principle, which we always regard in writing, a principle of universal grammar, as old at least as the writings of Aristotle, that there can be no syllable without a vowel, or without some sovel power, I am inclined to teach, with Brightland, Dr. It mson, L. Murray, and others, that, in English, as in French, there is given to the vowel en some unaccented syllables a certain very obscure sound, which approaches, but amounts not to an absolute suppression, though it is commonly so regarded by the writers of our dictionaries. See Murray's examples above. If the e in "open" or able be supposed to have some faint sound, the oral elements of our language may be reckoned there even.

If the c in "open" or able be supposed to have some faint sound, the oral elements of our language may be reckoned thirty-seven.

Oss. 11.—It is also a general principle, necessarily following from this, that, where the vowel of a syllable is suppressed or left entirely mute, any part which remains, of such syllable, falls to another vowel, and becomes part of another syllable: thus Cowper, in the phrase "'Tis deep'rate," reduces five syllables to three. But Wells, in arguing against the common definition of a consonant, says, "We have many-syllables in which the vowel, though written, is not heard at all in pronunciation, as in the words taken, burdened, which are pronounced taken, burdened, which are pronounced taken, burdened, as in the words taken, burdened, which are pronounced to sounded as a destinct syllable, without the use even of a written youel, as in the words charm. "There are insuances, also, in which a constraint to contain the words chasem, shipth-m."—School Gram., p. 31. Here a very excellent teacher evidently inculates error; for chasm, rhythm, or even chasmed, is only a monosyllable, and to call a consonant a syllable, is a contradiction in terms.

IV. FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

In the English language, the Roman characters are generally employed; sometimes, the Italic; and occasionally, the Old English. In writing, we use the Script.

The letters have severally two forms, by which they are distinguished as capitals and small letters.

Small letters constitute the body of every work; and capitals are used for the sake of eminence and distinction.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS.

RULE I .-- TITLES OF BOOKS.

The titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals. When books are merely mentioned, the chief words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small; as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

RULE II .- FIRST WORDS.

The first word of every distinct sentence, or of any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital.

RULE III .- NAMES OF DEITY.

All names of the Deity should begin with capitals; as, God, Jennah. the Almighty, the Structure Being.

PROPER NAMES.

Titles of or nonour, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, Chief Justice Hale, William, London, the Park, the Albion, the Spectator, the Thames.

RULE V .-- OBJECTS PERSONIFIED.

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as, "Come, gentle Spring, ethereal mildness, come."

RULE VI .-- WORDS DERIVED.

Words derived from proper names of persons or places, should begin with capitals; as, Newtonian, Grecian, Roman.

RULE VII .-- I AND O.

The words I and O should always be capitals; as, "Out of the depths have I cried unto thee O Lord."—Psalms, cxxx, 1.

RULE VIII .-- IN POETRY.

Every line in poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as,

"Our sons their fathers' failing language see, And such as Chaucer is, shall Dryden be."—Pope,

RULE IX. -- EXAMPLES, ETC.

A full example, a distinct speech, or a direct quotation, should begin with a capital; as, "Remember this maxim: 'Know thyself.'"—"Virgil says, 'Labour conquers all things,'"

RULE X .--- CHIEF WORDS.

Other words of particular importance, and such as denote the principal subjects of discourse, may be distinguished by capitals. Proper names frequently have capitals throughout.

CHAPTER II.—OF SYLLABLES.

A Syllable is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word; as, a, an, ant.

In every word there are as many syllables as there

are distinct sounds; as, gram-ma-ri-an.

A word of one syllable is called a monosyllable; a word of two syllables, a dissyllable; and a word of four or more syllables, a polysyllable.

DIPHTHONGS AND TRIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, ea in beat, ou in sound.

A proper diphthong, is a diphthong in which both the

vowels are sounded; as, oi in voice.

An improper diphthong, is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, oa in loaf.

A triphthong is three vowels joined in one syllable;

as, eau in beau, iew in view.

A proper triphthong, is a triphthong in which all the

vowels are sounded; as, uoy in buoy.

An improper triphthong, is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, eau in beauty, iou in anxious.

SYLLABICATION.

J rds into syllables, we are to be directed chiefly by the ear; it may however be proper to observe, as far as practicable, the following rules.

RULE I .-- CONSONANTS.

Consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or diphthongs which they modify in utterance; as, ap-os-tol-i-cal.

RULE II .--- VOWELS.

Two vowels, coming together, if they make not a diphthong, must be parted in dividing the syllables; as, a-e-ri-al.

RULE III .- TERMINATIONS.

Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical words to which they have been added; as, harm-less, great-ly, con-nect-ed.

RULE IV .--- PREFIXES.

Prefixes in general form separate syllables; as, mis-place, out-ride, up-lift: but if their own primitive meaning be disregarded, the case may be otherwise; thus re-create and rec-reate are words of different import.

RULE V .--- COMPOUNDS.

Compounds, when divided, should be divided into the simple words which compose them; as, no-where.

RULE VI.-LINES FULL.

At the end of a line, a word may be divided, if necessary; but a syllable must never be broken.

CHAPTER III.—OF WORDS.

A Word is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea, or of some manner of thought.

SPECIES AND FIGURE OF WORDS.

Words are distinguished as primitive or derivative, and as simple or compound. The former division is called their species; the latter, their figure.

A primitive word is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, harm, great, connect.

A derivative word is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language as, harmless, greatly, connected, disconnect, unconnected.

7.5

A simple word is one that is not compounded, not composed of other words; as, watch, man, never, the, less.

A compound word is one that is composed two or

more simple words; as, watchman, nevertheless.

Permanent compounds are consolidated; as, book-seller, schoolmaster: others, which may be called temporary compounds, are formed by the hyphen; as, glass-house, negro-merchant.

RULES FOR THE FIGURE OF WORDS.

RULE I.—COMPOUNDS. 9

Words regularly or analogically united, and commonly known as forming a compound, should never be needlessly broken apart.

RULE II.-SIMPLES.

When the simple words would only form a regular phrase, of the same meaning, the compounding of any of them ought to be avoided.

MULE III .- THE SENSE.

Words otherwise liable to be misunderstood, must be joined together or written separately, as the sense and construction may happen to require.

RULE IV .-- ELLIPSES.

When two or more compounds are connected in one sentence, none of them should be split to make an ellipsis of half a word.

RULE V .-- THE HYPHEN.

When the parts of a compound do not fully coalesce, as to-day, to-night, to-morrow; or when each retains its original accent, so that the compound has more than one, or one that is movable, as first-born, hanger-on, laughter-loving, the hyphen should be inserted between them.

RULE VI .--- NO HYPHEN.

When a compound has but one accented syllable in pronunciation, as watchword, statesman, gentleman, and the parts are such as admit of a complete coalescence, no hyphen should be inserted between them.

CHAPTER IV.—OF SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

Oss.—This important art is to be acquired rather by means of the spelling-book or dictionary, and by observation in reading, than by the study of written rules. The orthography of our language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity: many words are variously spelled by the best scholars, and many others are not usually written according to the analogy of similar words. But to be ignorant of the orthography of such words are uniformly spelled and frequently used, is justly considered disgraceful. The following rules may prevent some embarrassment, and thus be of service to those who wish to be accurate.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

RULE I .- FINAL F, L, OR S.

Monosyllables ending in f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, staff, mill, pass: except three in f—clef, if, of; four in l—bul, nul, sal, sol; and eleven in s—as, gas, has, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II .-- OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than f, l, or s, do not double the final letter: except abb, ebb, add, odd, egg, inn, err, burr, purr, yarr, butt, buzz, fuzz, and some proper names.

RULE III .- DOUBLING.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, or by a vowel after qu, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, rob, robber; permit, permitting; acquit, acquittal, acquitting.

Exc.—X final, being equivalent to ks, is never doubled.

RULE IV .--- NO DOUBLING.

A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable: as, toil, toiling; visit, visited; general, generalize.

Exc.—But *l* and *s* final are usually doubled, (though perhaps improperly,) when the last syllable is not accented: as,

travel, traveller; bias, biassed.

RULE V .-- RETAINING.

Words ending with any double letter, preserve it double

before any additional termination, not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives: seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.

Exc.—The irregular words, fled, sold, told, dwelt, spelt, spilt, shalt, wilt, blest, past, and the derivatives from the word pontiff, are exceptions to this rule.

RULE VI .--- FINAL E.

The final e mute of a primitive word, is generally omitted before an additional termination beginning with a vowel: as, rate, ratable; force, forcible; rave, raving; eye, eying.

Exc.—Words ending in ce or ge, retain the e before able or ous, to preserve the soft sounds of c and g: as, peace, peace-

able; change, changeable; outrage, outrageous.

RULE VII .-- FINAL E.

The final e of a primitive word, is generally retained before an additional termination beginning with a consonant: as, pale, paleness; lodge, lodgement.

Exc.—When the e is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omitted; as, true, truly; awe, awful: and sometimes retained; as, rue, rueful; shoe, shoeless.

RULE VIII .-- FINAL Y.

The final y of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into i before an additional termination: as, merry, merrier, merriest, merrily, merriment; pity, pitied, pities, pitiest, pitiless, pitiful, pitiable.

Exc.—Before ing, y is retained to prevent the doubling of i; as, pity, pitying. Words ending in ie, dropping the e by Rule 6th, change i into y, for the same reason; as, die, dying.

Ons.—When a vowel precedes, y should not be changed: as, day, days; valley, valleys; money, moneys; monkey, monkeys.

RULE IX .-- COMPOUNDS.

Compounds generally retain the orthography of the simple words which compose them; as, hereof, wherein, horseman, recall, uphill, shellfish.

Exc.—In permanent compounds, the words full and all drop one l; as, handful, careful, always, withal: in others, they re-

tain both; as, full-eyed, all-wise, save-all.

Oss.—Other words ending in *U*, sometimes improperly drop one *l*, when taken into composition; as, *miscal*, *downkil*. This excision is reprehensible, because it is contrary to general analogy, and because both letters are necessary to preserve the sound, and show the derivation of the compound.

Where is the consistency of writing, recall, miscal,—inthrall, bethral,—windfall, downfal,—laystall, thumbstal,—voaterfall, overfal,—molehill, dunghil,—windmill, the clodpoll, enrol? [See Johnson's Dictionary, first American ed. 4to.]

CHAPTER V.—EXAMINATION.

LESSON I .- GENERAL DIVISION.

What is English Grammar? How is it divided? Of what does Orthography treat? Of what does Etymology treat? Of what does Syntax treat? Of what does Prosody treat?

Of what does Orthography treat?

QUESTIONS ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON II.-LETTERS.

What is a Letter?
What is an elementary sound of a word?
What name is given to the sound of a letter? and what epithet, to a letter not sounded?
How many letters are there in English? and how many sounds do they represent?
In what does a knowledge of the letters consist?
What variety is noticed in letters that are always the same?
What different sorts of types, or letters, are used in English?
What are the names of the letters in English?
Which of the letters name themselves? and which do not?
What are the names of all in both numbers, singular and plural?

LESSON III.—CLASSES OF LETTERS.

What is a vowel?
What is a consonant?
What is a consonant?
What letters are vowels? and what, consonants?
When are w and y consonants? and when vowels?
How are the consonants divided?
What is a semivowel?
What is a mute?
What letters are semivowels? and which of these are aspirates?
What letters are called liquids, and why?
How many and which are the letters reckoned mutes?

Into what general classes are the letters divided?

LESSON IV.-POWERS, OR SOUNDS.

What is meant, when we speak of "the powers of the letters?" In what series of short words are heard our chief vowel sounds? How may these sounds be modified to form words or syllables? Can you form a word from each by means of an f? Will you form an other such series with a p? How many and what are the consonant sounds in English? In what series of words may all these sounds be heard? In what series of words is each of them heard more than once? Do our letters admit of combinations enough? What do we derive from these elements of language?

LESSON V .- FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

What is said of the employment of the several styles of letters in English? What distinction of form do we make in each of the letters?

What is said of small letters? and why are capitals used?

How many rules for capitals are given? and what are their heads

What says Rule 1st of titles of books?—Rule 2d of first words?—Rule 3d of

names of Deity?—Rule 4th of proper names?—Rule 5th of objects personsified?—Rule 6th of words derived?—Rule 7th of I and O?—Rule 8th of poetry ?-Rule 9th of examples, &c. ?-Rule 10th of chief words?

LESSON VI. SYLLABLES.

What is a syllable?

Can the syllables of a word be perceived by the ear?

What is a word of one syllable called ?—a word of two ?—of three ?—of four or more ?

What is a diphthong?

What is a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?
What is a triphthong?

What is a proper triphthong?—an improper triphthong? What chiefly directs us in dividing words into syllables?

How many rules of syllabication are given? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of consonants?—Rule 2d of cowels?—Rule 3d of terminations?—Rule 4th of prefixes?—Rule 5th of compounds?—Rule 6th of lines full ?

LESSON VIL --- WORDS.

What is a word?

How are words distinguished in regard to species and figure?

What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word?

What is a simple word?

What is a compound word?

How do permanent compounds differ from others?

How many are the rules for the figure of words? and what, their heads? What says Rule 1st of compounds?—Rule 2d of simples?—Rule 8d of the sense?—Rule 4th of ellipses?—Rule 5th of the hyphen?—Rule 6th of using no hyphen?

LESSON VIII .- SPELLING.

What is spelling?
How is this art to be acquired?
How many rules for spelling are there? and what are their heads?
What says Rule 1st of finat f, l, or s?—Rule 2d of other finals?—Rule 3d of the doubling of consonants?—Rule 4th against the doubling of consonants?
—Rule 5th of retaining?—Rule 6th of final e?—Rule 7th of final e?—Rule 8th of final y?—Rule 9th of compounds?

CHAPTER VI.—FOR WRITING.

EXERCISES IN ORTHOGRAPHY.

[Spelling is to be taught by example, rather than by rule. For oral exercises in this branch of learning, a spelling-book or vocabulary should be employed. The following examples of false orthography are inserted, that they may be corrected by the pupil in writing. They are selected with direct reference to the rules; which are at first indicated by figures. For it is evident, that exercises of this kind, without express rules for their correction, would rather perplex than instruct the learner; and that his ability to correct them without reference to the rules, must presuppose such knewledge as would render them useless.

EXERCISE I.—CAPITALS.

1. The pedant quoted Johnson's dictionary of the english language, Gregory's dictionary of arts and sciences, Crabb's english synonymes, Walker's key to the pronunciation of proper names, Sheridan's rhetorical grammar, and the diversions of purley.

2. gratitude is a delightful emotion. the grateful heart at

once performs its duty and endears itself to others.

3. What madness and folly, to deny the great first cause! Shall mortal man presume against his maker? shall he not fear the omnipotent? shall he not reverence the everlasting one?—'The fear of the lord is the beginning of wisdom.'

4. xerxes the great, emperor of persia, united the medes, persians, bactrians, lydians, assyrians, hyrcanians, and many

other nations, in an expedition against greece.

5. I observed that, when the votaries of religion were led aside, she commonly recalled them by her emissary conscience, before habit had time to enchain them.

6. Hercules is said to have killed the nemean lion, the erymanthian boar, the lernean serpent, and the stymphalian birds. The christian religion has brought all mythologic stories

and milesian fables into disrepute.

- 7. i live as i did, i think as i did, i love you as i did; but all these are to no purpose; the world will not live, think, or love as i do.—o wretched prince! o cruel reverse of fortune! o father Micipsa!
 - 8. are these thy views? proceed, illustrious youth, and virtue guard thee to the throne of truth!
- 9. Those who pretend to love peace, should remember this maxim: "it is the second blow that makes the battle."

EXERCISE II.—CAPITALS.

'time and i will challenge any other two,' said philip.—
'thus,' said diogenes, 'do i trample on the pride of plato.'—
'true,' replied plato; 'but is it not with the greater pride of diogenes?'

the father in a transport of joy, burst into the following words: 'o excellent scipio! heaven has given thee more than

human virtue! o glorious leader! o wondrous youth!'

epaminondas, the theban general, was remarkable for his love of truth. he never told a lie, even in jest.

and pharaoh said to joseph, "say to thy brethren, 'do this—lade your beasts, and go to the land of canaan,'"

who is she that, with graceful steps and a lively air, trips over yonder plain? her name is health: she is the daughter of exercise and temperance.

to the penitent sinner, a mediator and intercessor with the

sovereign of the universe, appear comfortable names.

The murder of abel, the curse and rejection of cain, and the birth and adoption of seth, are almost the only events related of the immediate family of adam, after his fall.

on what foundation stands the warrior's pride, yow just his hopes, let swedish charles decide. In every leaf that trembles to the breeze, hear the voice of god among the trees.

EXERCISE III.—SYLLABLES.

1. Correct Murray's division of the following words: "civil, co-lour, co-py, da-mask, do-zen, e-ver, fea-ther, ga-ther, hea-ven, le-mon, mea-dow, ne-ver, o-range, pu-nish, ro-bin, sho-vel, ti-mid, whi-ther;—be-ne-fit, ca-nis-ter, ge-ne-rous, le-ve-ret, li-be-ral, se-ve-ral;—mi-se-ra-ble, to-le-ra-ble, e-pi-de-mic, pa-ra-ly-tic;—a-ca-de-mi-cal, cha-rac-te-ris-tic, ex-pe-ri-ment-al."—Murray's Spelling-Book.

2. Correct Webster's division of the following words: "oy-er, fol-io, gen-ial, gen-ius, jun-ior, sa-tiate, vi-tiate;—ambro-sia, par-hel-ion, con-ven-ient, in-gen-ious, om-nis-cience, pe-cul-iar, so-cia-ble, par-tial-i-ty, pe-cun-ia-ry;—an-nun-ciate, e-nun-ciate, ap-pre-ciate, as-so-ciate, ex-pa-tiate, ne-go-tiate,

sub-stan-tiate."— Webster's Spelling-Books.

3. Correct Cobb's division of the following words: "dresser, has-ty, pas-try, sei-zure, rol-ler, jes-ter, wea-ver, vam-per, han-dy, dros-sy, glos-sy, mo-ver, mo-ving, oo-zy, ful-ler, trus-ty, weigh-ty, noi-sy, drow-sy, swar-thy."—Cobb's Standard Spelling-Book. And these: "eas-tern, full-y, pull-et, rill-et, scan-ty, nee-dy."—Webster. Also these: "woo-dy, stor-my, clou-dy, ex-al-ted, at-ten-dance."—Murray.

4. Divide the following words into their proper syllables: adit, ado, adorn, adown, adrift, anoint, athwart, awry, bespeak, bestow, between, bifold, encroach, incrust, foreknow, forestall, forswear, mishear, mistell, misyoke, outrap, overtire, preterit, retrace, unoiled, unrepaid, unresting, underbid, underanged,

uphand, upholder, uprouse, withal.

5. Divide the following compounds into syllables: England, anthill, cowslip, farewell, foresail, foretop, hogshead, homeward, candstone, forever, husbandman, painstaker.

EXERCISE IV.—FIGURE OF WORDS.

1. The shine of the plough share is the farmer's wealth. The cross row has ever had some thing of a magic spell in it. The old fashioned are apt to think the world grows worse. The stealing of water melons may lead to house breaking. A good clothes brush helps greatly to make a gentle man. 2. An ill-tongue is a fearful corrupter of good-manners. Envy not the good-luck of prosperous transgressors. St. Paul admonishes Timothy to refuse old-wives'-fables. Lawmakers have often been partial to male-descendants. New-year's-gifts brighten many a face on new-year's day. 3. They that live in glass-houses, should not throw stones. A glass house is a house in which glass is manufactured. A spirit stirring discourse is seldom a long winded one. Knowledge and virtue are the stepping stones to honour. The American whip poor Will is a night warbling bird. 4. Let school and meeting-houses be pleasantly located. The teapot and kettle are now deemed indispensable. Both the ten and the eight syllable verses are iambics. Most, at six or seventeen years of age, are men and women. A ketch is a vessel with two masts, a main and mizzen-mast. 5. The bloodyminded man seldom dwells long in safety. A tiresmith puts on wheelbands redhot, then cools them. Plato was so called because he was broadshouldered. Timehonoured custom may be souldestroying folly. Is evenhanded honesty expected in slavemerchants? 6. A good pay-master is always a man of some fore-thought. The glory of the common-wealth is the states-man's boast. Rain-bows are made of sun-shine dissolved in sky-water.

EXERCISE V.—SPELLING.

Few know the value of a friend, til they lose him. Good men pas by offences, and take no revenge. Hear patiently, iff thou wouldst speak wel.
 The business of warr is devastation and destruction. To er is human; to forgive, divine.
 A bad speller should not pretend to scholarshipp.
 It often requires deep diging, to obtain pure water. Praise is most shuned by the praiseworthy.
 Quarrels are more easily begun than endded.
 Contempt leaves a deepper scar than anger.
 Of all tame animals the flatterrer is the most mischievous.

Smalness with talness makes the figure too slender. Heedlesness is always in danger of embarrasment. The recklesness of license is no attribute of fredom.
 Good examples are very convinceing teachers. Doubts should not excite contention, but inquirey. Obligeing conduct procures deserved esteem.
 Wise men measure time by their improvment of it. Learn to estimate all things by their real usfulness. Encouragment increases with success.
 Nothing essential to happyness is unattainable. Vices, though near relations, are all at varyance. Before thou denyest a favour, consider the request.
 Good-wil is a more powerful motive than constraint. A wel-spent day prepares us for sweet repose.
 The path of fame is altogether an uphil road.

EXERCISE VI.—SPELLING.

1. He is tal enough who walks uprightly. Repetition makes smal transgressions great. Religion regulates the wil and affections. 2. To carry a ful cupp even, requires a steady hand. Idleness is the nest in which mischief lays its egs. The whole journey of life is besett with foes. 3. Peace of mind should be preferred to bodily safety. A bad begining is unfavourable to success. Very fruitful trees often need to be proped. 4. None ever gained esteem by tattling and gossipping. Religion purifies, fortifies, and tranquillizes the mind. They had all been closetted together a long time. 5. Blesed is he whose transgresion is forgiven. Indolence and listlesness are foes to happiness. Carelesness has occasioned many a wearisome step. 6. In all thy undertakeings, ponder the motive and the end. We cannot wrong others without injuring ourselves. A dureable good cannot spring from an external cause. 7. Duely appreciate and improve your privileges. To borrow of future time, is thriftless managment. He who is truely a freman is above mean compliances. 8. Piting friends cannot save us in a diing hour. Wisdom rescues the decaies of age from aversion. Vallies are generally more fertile than hills. 9. Cold numness had quite bereft her of sense. A eascade, or waterfal, is a charming object in scenery.

Nettles grow in the vinyard of the slothfull. Tuition is lost on idlers and numbsculs.

EXERCISE VII.—SPELLING.

1. He that scofs at the crooked, should beware of stooping. Pictures that resemble flowers, smel only of paint. Misdemeanours are the pioneers of gros vices. 2. To remitt a wrong, leaves the offender in debt. Superlative commendation is near aking to detraction. Piety admitts not of excessive sorrow. 3. You are safe in forgeting benefits you have confered. He has run well who has outstriped his own errors. See that you have ballast proportionate to your riging. 4. The biasses of prejudice often preclude convincement. Rather follow the wise than lead the foollish. To reason with the angry, is like whisperring to the deaf. A bigotted judge needs no time for deliberation. The gods of this world have many worshippers. 5. Crosness has more subjects than admirers. Fearlesness conquers where Blamelesness is armour-bearer. 6. Many things are chiefly valued for their rareity. Vicious old age is hopeless and deploreable. Irreconcileable animosity is always blameable. 7. Treachery lurks beneath a guilful tongue. Disobedience and mischief deserve chastisment. By self-examination, we discover the lodgments of sin. The passions often mislead the judgment. 8. To be happy without holyness is impossible. And, all within, were walks and allies wide. Call imperfection what thou fancy'st such. Without fire chimnies are useless. 9. The true philanthropist deserves a universal pasport.

EXERCISE VIII.—SPELLING.

Fiction may soften, without improveing the heart. Affectation is a sprout that should be niped in the bud. A covettous person is always in want. Fashion is compareable to an ignis-fatuus. Fair appearances somtimes cover foul purposes. Garnish not your commendations with flatterry. Never utter a falshood even for truth's sake.

Ridicule is generally but the froth of il-nature. All mispent time will one day be regretted.

Medicines should be administerred with caution. We have here no continueing city, no abideing rest. Many a trapp is laid to ensuare the feet of youth. We are caught as sillyly as the bird in the net. By defering repentance, we accumulate sorrows. To preach to the droneish, is to waste your words. We are often benefitted by what we have dreaded. We may be succesful, and yet disappointed. In rebusses, pictures are used to represent words. He is in great danger who parlies with conscience. Your men of forhead are magnificent in promises. A true friend is a most valueable acquisition. It is not a bad memory that forgets injuryes. Weigh your subject wel, before you speak positivly. Difficulties are often increased by mismanagment. Diseases are more easyly prevented than cured. Contrivers of mischief often entrapp themselves. Corrupt speech indicates a distemperred mind. Asseveration does not allways remove doubt. Hypocrites are like wolves in sheeps' clotheing. Ostentatious liberallity is its own paymaster.

EXERCISE IX.—SPELLING.

A downhil road may be travelled with ease. Distempered fancy can swel a molehil to a mountain. Let your own unbiassed judgment determine. A knave can often undersel his honest neighbours. Xenophanes preferred reputation to wealth. True politeness is the ofspring of benevolence. Levellers are generally the dupes of designning men. Rewards are for those who have fullfiled their duty. Who trusts a hungry boy in a cubburd of dainties? Misery acquaints a man with strange bedfellers. The liberal man ties his purse with a beau-not. Double-deelers are seldom long in favour. The characters of the crosrow have wrought wonders. The plagiary is a jacdaw decked with stolen plumes. All virtues are in agrement; all vices, at varyance. Personnal liberty is every man's natural birthrite. There, wrapt in clouds, the blueish hills ascend. The birds frame to thy song, their chearfull cherupping. There figgs, skydyed, a purple hue disclose. Lysander goes twice a day to the choccolat-house. Years following years, steal sumthing every day.

CHAP. VI.] ORTHOGRAPHY.— EXERCISES.

The soul of the slothfull, does but drowse in his body.

What think you of a clergiman in a soldier's dres?

Justice is here holding the stilliards for a balance.

The huming-bird is somtimes no biger than a bumble-be.

The muskittoes will make you as spoted as a samon-trout.

Cruelty to animals is a malicious and lo-lived vice.

Absolute Necessity must sign their deth-warrant.

He who catches flies, emulates the nat-snaper.

The froggs had long lived unmolested in a horspond.

'These are villanous creatures,' says a blokheded boy.

The robbin-read-breast til of late had rest;

And children sacred held a martin's nest.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

CHAPTER I.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Parts of Speech, or sorts of words, in English, are ten; namely, the Article, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Participle, the Adverb, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

1. THE ARTICLE.

An Article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification: as, The air, the stars; an island, a ship.

2. THE NOUN.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned: as, George, York, man, apple, truth.

3. THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, A wise man; a new book. You two are diligent.

4. THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, The boy loves his book; he has long lessons, and he learns them well.

5. THE VERB.

A Verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon: as, I am, I rule, I am ruled; I love, thou lovest, he loves.

6. THE PARTICIPLE.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding ing, d, or ed, to the verb: thus, from the verb rule, are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. ruling, 2. ruled, 3. having ruled.

7. THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, They are now here, studying very diligently.

8. THE CONJUNCTION.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected: as, "Thou and he are happy, because you are good."—L. Murray.

9. THE PREPOSITION.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun: as, The paper lies before me on the desk.

10. THE INTERJECTION.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, Oh! alas! ah! poh! pshaw! avaunt!

PARSING.

Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence, or of some related word or words, according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

A perfect definition of any thing or class of things is such a description of it, as distinguishes that entire thing or class from every thing else, by briefly telling what it is.

A rule of grammar is some law, more or less general, by which custom regulates and prescribes the right use

of language.

A praxis is a method of exercise, or a form of grammatical resolution, showing the learner how to proceed. The word is Greek, and literally signifies action, doing, practice, or formal use.

An example is a particular instance or model, serving to prove or illustrate some given proposition or truth.

An exercise is some technical performance required of the learner in order to test his knowledge or skill by use.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS I.—ETYMOLOGICAL.

In the First Praxis, it is required of the pupil—merely to distinguish and define the different parts of speech.

The definitions to be given in the First Praxis are one, and only one, for each word, or part of speech. Thus:—

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"The patient ox submits to the yoke, and meekly performs the labour required of him."

The is an article.

1.* An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification.

Patient is an adjective.

- An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

 Oz is a noun.
- 1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

 Submits is a verb.

1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

To is a preposition.

 A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun.

These definitions are numbered here, because each of them is the first of a series now begun. In class rehearsals, the pupils may be required to give the definitions in turn; and, to prevent any from losing the place, it is important that the numbers be mentioned. When each member of the class has become sufficiently familiar with the definitions, the exercise may be performed in a short way, without these explanations. They are to be read or repeated till faults disappear—or till the teacher is as ifside with the performance. He may then save time, by commanding his class to proceed more briefly, making such distinctions as are required in the praxis, but cessing to explain the terms employed; that is, omitting all the definitions, for bree-tily's suke. This remark is applicable likewise to all the subsequent praxes of etymological parsing. The method here chosen reduces the several praxes to a graduated series; draws a clear distinction between etymological parsing and syntactical; uses fallness or brevity, as is most desirable at the time; and, being at once both easier and more effective than any other, is better by all the difference between the two.

The is an article.

1. An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification.

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

And is a conjunction.

1. A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected.

Mockly is an adverb.

1. An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

Performs is a verb.

1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

The is an article.

- 1. An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification. . sbour is a noun.
 - A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

Required is a participle.

1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb and an adjective; and is generally formed by adding ing, d, or ed. to the verb.

Of is a preposition.

1. A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun.

Him is a pronoun.

1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

LESSON I.

The rose, the lily, and the pink, are fragrant flowers.

A peach, an apple, a pear, or an orange, is delicious.

A landscape presents a pleasing variety of objects.

Man is the noblest work of creation.

The eagle has a strong and piercing eye.

The swallow builds her nest of mud, and lines it with soft feathers.

The setting sun gives a beautiful brilliancy to the western sky.

LESSON II.

Candour, sincerity, and truth, are amiable qualities.

Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood.—Blair.

Injuries retaliated in anger, excite resentment in return.

All that is great and good in the universe, is on the side of clemency and mercy.—Blair.

Industry is needful in every condition of life: the price of

all improvement is labour.

Sloth enfeebles equally the bodily and the mental powers.

It saps the foundation of every virtue, and pours upon us a deluge of crimes and evils.—Blair.

LESSON III.

An idle, mischievous, and disobedient pupil disgraces himself, dishonours his parents, and displeases his teacher.

Alas! that such examples are sometimes found!

O Virtue! how miserable are they who forfeit thy rewards!

Pleasure's call attention wins, Hear it often as we may; New as ever seem our sins, Though committed every day.

O! then, ere the turf or tomb Cover us from every eye, Spirit of instruction! come, Make us learn that we must die.—Couper.

CHAPTER II.—OF ARTICLES.

An Article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification: as, The air, the stars; an island, a ship.

An and a are one and the same article. An is used whenever the following word begins with a vowel sound; as, An art, an end, an heir, an inch, an ounce, an hour, an urn.—A is used whenever the following word begins with a consonant sound; as, A man, a house, a wonder, a one, a yew, a use, a ewer. Thus the consonant sounds of w and y, even when expressed by other letters, require a and not an before them.

CLASSES.

The articles are distinguished as the definite and the indefinite.

I. The definite article is the, which denotes some par-

ticular thing or things; as, The boy, the oranges.

II. The *indefinite article* is an or a, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one; as, A boy, an orange.

Ons. 1.—The English articles have no grammatical modifications; they are

not varied by numbers, genders, and cases, as are those of some other languages. In respect to class, each is sui generis.

Oss. 2.—A common noun without an article or other word to limit its signification, is generally taken in its widest sense; as, "A candid temper is proper for man; that is, for all mankind."—Murray.

CHAPTER III.—OF NOUNS.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned: as, George, York, man, apple, truth.

Oss. 1.—All words and signs taken technically, (that is, independently of their meaning, and merely as things spoken of,) are nouns; or, rather, are things read and construed as nouns; as, "Us is a personal pronoun."—Murray. "Th has two sounds."—Id. "Control is probably contracted from counterroll."—Crabb. "Without one if or but."—Crooper. "A is sometimes a noun; as, a great A."—Todd's Johnson. "Formerly sp was east in a piece, as st's are now."—Hist. of Printing, 1770.

Oss. 2.—In parsing, the learner must observe the sense and use of each word and class it accordingly: many words commonly belonging to other

Oss. 2.—In parsing, the learner must observe the sense and use of each word, and class it accordingly: many words commonly belonging to other parts of speech, are occasionally used as nouns, and must be parsed as such; as, 1. "The Ancient of days."—Bible. "Of the ancients."—Swift. "For such impertinents."—Sweele. "He is an ignorant in it."—Id "To the sines."—Burns. 2. "Or any he, the proudest of thy sort."—Shak. "I am the happiest she in Kent."—Steele. "The shee of Italy."—Shak. "The hes in birds."—Bacon. 3. "Avaunt all attitude, and stare, and start, theatric!"—Coupper. "A may-be of mercy is insufficient."—Bridge. 4. "For the producing of real happiness."—Crabb. "Reading, writing, and ciphering, are indispensable to civilized man." 5. "An hereafter."—Addison. "The dread of a hereafter."—Filler. "The deep amen."—Scott. "The while."—Milton. 6. "With hark, and whoop, and wild halloo."—Scott. "Will cuts him short with a 'What then I'"—Addison.

CLASSES.

Nouns are divided into two general classes; proper and common.

I. A proper noun is the name of some particular individual, or people, or group; as, Adam, Boston, the Hudson, the Romans, the Azores, the Alps.

II. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things; as, Beast, bird, fish, insect, creatures, persons, children.

The particular classes, collective, abstract, and verbal or participial, are usually included among common nouns. name of a thing sui generis is also called common.

1. A collective noun, or noun of multitude, is the name of many individuals together; as, Council, meeting, committee, flock.

2. An abstract noun is the name of some particular quality considered apart from its substance; as, Goodness, hardness,

pride, frailty.

3. A verbal or participial noun is the name of some action or state of being; and is formed from a verb, like a participle, but employed as a noun: as, "The triumphing of the wicked is short."-Job, xx, 5.

4. A thing sui generis, (i. e., of its own peculiar kind,) is something which is distinguished, not as an individual of a species, but as a sort by itself, without plurality in either the noun or the sort of thing; as, Galvanism, music, geometry.

Oss. 1.—The proper name of a person or place with an article prefixed, is generally used as a common noun; as, "He is the Cicero of his age,"—that is, the orator. "Many a flery Alp,"—that is, mountain: except when a common noun is understood; as, The [river] Hudson,—The [ship] Amity,—The treacherous [man] Judas.

One. 2.—A common noun with the definite article prefixed to it, sometimes becomes proper; as, The Park,—The Strand.

One. 3.—The common name of a thing or quality personified often becomes proper; as, "'My power,' said Reason, 'is to advise, not to compel.'"— Johnson.

MODIFICATIONS.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds; namely, Persons, Numbers, Genders, and Cases.

PERSONS.

Persons, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing merely spoken of.

Ors.—The distinction of persons is founded on the different relations which the objects mentioned may bear to the discourse itself. It belongs to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs; and to these it is always applied, either by peculiarity of form or construction, or by inference from the principles of concord. Pronouns are like their antecedents, and verbs are like their subjects, in person.

There are three persons; the first, the second, and the third.

The first person is that which denotes the speaker or writer; as "I Paul have written it."

The second person is that which denotes the hearer, or the person addressed; as, "Robert, who did this?"

The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of; as, "James loves his book."

OBS. 1.—In written language, the first person denotes the writer or author; and the second, the reader or person addressed: except when the writer describes not himself, but some one else, as uttering to an other the words which he records.

Oss. 2.—The speaker seldom refers to himself by name, as the speaker; Oss. 2.—Ine speaker seldom refers to nimsen by name, as the speaker; consequently, nouns are rarely used in the first person; and when they are, a pronoun is usually prefixed to them. Hence some grammarians deny the first person to nouns altogether; others ascribe it; and many are silent on the subject. Analogy clearly requires it; as may be seen by the following examples: "Adsum Troius Eness."—Virg. "Callopius recensui."—Ter. Com. apud finem. "Paul, an apostle, &c., unto Timothy, my own son in the faith." apud finem. "Paul, an apostle, &c., unto Timothy, my own son in the faith."
—1 Tim., i. 1.
OBS. 8.—When a speaker or writer does not choose to declare himself in

OBS. 8.—When a speaker or writer does not choose to declare himself in the first person, or to address his hearer or reader in the second, he speaks of both or either in the third. Thus Moses relates what Moses did, and Cassar records the achievements of Casar. So Judsh humbly beseeches Joseph: "Let thy servant abide in stead of the lad a bondman to my lord."—Gen., xliv, 33. And Abraham reverently intercedes with God: "Oh! let not the Lord be angry, and I will speak."—Gen., xviii, 30.

OBS. 4.—When inanimate things are spoken to, they are personified; and their names are put in the second person, because by the figure the objects are supposed to be capable of hearing.

NUMBERS.

Numbers, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality.

OBS.—The distinction of numbers serves merely to show whether we speak of one object, or of more. It belongs to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs; and to these it is always applied, either by peculiarity of form, or by inference from the principles of concord. Pronouns are like their antecedents, and verbs are like their subjects, in number.

There are two numbers; the singular and the plural. The singular number is that which denotes but one; as, The boy learns.

The plural number is that which denotes more than

one; as, The boys learn,

The plural number of nouns is regularly formed by \ adding s or es to the singular: as, book, books; box, boxes.

RULE I.—When the singular ends in a sound which will \ unite with that of s, the plural is generally formed by adding i s only, and the number of syllables is not increased: as, pen, pens; grape, grapes.

RULE II.—But when the sound of s cannot be united with that of the primitive word, the plural adds s to final e, and es to other terminations, and forms a separate syllable: as, page,

pages; fox, foxes.

Oss. 1.—English nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant, add es, but do not increase their syllables: as, no, woes; hero, heroes; negroes; potato, potatoes; muskitto, muskittoes; octavo, octavoes. The exceptions to this rule appear to be in such nouns as are not properly and fully Anglicized; thus many write cantos, juntos, solos, &c. Other nouns in o add s only; as, folio, folios; bamboo, bamboos. The plural of two is commonly written teos,

but some prefer twoss.

Oss. 2.—Common nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant, change y into i, and add ss, without increase of syllables: as, fly, fites; duty, duties.

Other nouns in y add s only: as, day, days; valley, valleys. So likewise proper names in y are sometimes varied; as, Henry, the Henrys.

Ons. 8.—The following nouns in f, change f into v, and add es, for the plural; sheaf, leaf, loaf, beef, thief, calf, half, elf, shelf, self, wolf, wharf: as, sheaves, leaves, &c. Life, lives; knives; wife, knives; are similar. Staff makes staves: though the compounds of staff are regular; as, flagstaff, flagstaffs. The greater number of nouns in f and fe, are regular; as, fifes, whites disting agrees and so

strifes, chiefs, griefs, gulfs, &c.

Uns. 4.—The following are still more irregular: man, men; woman, women; child, children; brother, brethren [or brothers]; foot, feet; ox, oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice; die, dice; penny, pence; Dies, stamps, and pennies, coins, are regular.

Ons. 5.—Many foreign nouns retain their original plural: as, arcanum, the constant of the

Uss. 5.—Many foreign nouns retain their original plural: as, aroanum, aroana; datum, data; erratum, errata; effluvium, effluvia; medium, media [or mediums]; minutia, minutia; stratum, strata; stamen, stamina; genus, genera; genius, genii [geniuses, for men of wit]; magus, magi; radius, radii; appendia, appendiaes [or appendiaes]; cala, calces; index, indices [or indexes]; vortax, vortices; axis, axes; bases; bases; crisis, crises; thesis, theses; antithesis, antitheses; diaresis, diareses; ellipsis, ellipses; emphasis, emphases; hypothesis, hypotheses; metamorphoses, metamorphoses; automaton, automata; vortieria, criteria, seraphim; beau, beaux [or beaus].

Obs. 6.—Some nouns (from the nature of the things meant) have no plural; as, cold, wride, mechases.

as, gold, pride, meekness.

OBS. 7.—Proper names of individuals, strictly used as such, have no plume. But when several persons of the same name are spoken of, the noun becomes in some degree common, and admits the plural form and an article; as, The

in some degree common, and admits the plural form and an article; as, The Stuarts,—The Cosors: so likewise when such nouns are used to denote character; as, "The Aristotles, the Tullys, and the Lioys."—Burgh.

Obs. 8.—The proper names of nations and societies are generally plural; and, except in a direct address, they are usually construed with the definite article: as, The Greeks,—The Jesuits.

Obs. 9.—When a title is prefixed to a proper name so as to form a sort of compound, the name, and not the title, is varied to form the plural; as, The Miss Howards,—The two Mr. Clarks. But a title not regarded as a part of one compound name, must be made plural, if it refer to more than one; as, Messrs. Lambert and Son,—The Lords Calthorpe and Erskine,—The Lords Bishops of Durham and St. David's,—The Lords Commissioners of Justiciary.

Obs. 10.—Some nouns have no singular; as, embers, ides, cats, scissors, tones, vespers, literati.

tongs, vespers, literati.
Obs. 11.—Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, sheep, deer, vermin, Oss. 11.—Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, sneep, avern, vermin, swine, hose, means, odds, news, species, series, apparatus. The following are sometimes construed as singular, but more frequently, and more properly, as plural: alms, amends, pains, riches; ethics, mathematics, metaphysics, optics, politics, pneumatics, and other similar names of sciences. Bellows and gallows are properly alike in both numbers; (as, "Let a gallows be made."—Esther, v, 14. "The bellows are burned."—Jer., vi., 29;) but they have a regular plural in vulgar use. Bolus, fungus, isthmus, prospectus, and rebus, admit the regular plural admit the regular plural.

Oss. 12.—Compounds in which the principal word is put first, vary the principal word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case: as, Sing. father-in-law, Plur. fathers-in-law, Poss. father-in-law's;—Sing. court-martial, Plur. courts-martial, Poss. court-martial's. The Possess-

ive plural of such nouns is never used.

ive plural of such nouns is never used.

Oss. 18.—Compounds ending in ful, and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural in the same manner as other nouns; as, handfuls, eponfuls, mouthfuls, fellow-servants, man-servants, outpourings, ingatherings, downsittings.

Oss. 14.—Nouns of multitude, when taken collectively, generally admit the plural form; as, meeting, meetings: but when taken distributively, they have a plural signification, without the form; ss, "The jury were divided."

Oss. 18.—When other parts of areach become nouns they either went the

Oss. 15.—When other parts of speech become nouns, they either want the

CHAP. III.

plural, or form it regularly, like common nouns of the same endings; as, "His affairs went on at sixes and sevens."—Arbutanot. "Some mathematicians have proposed to compute by twoes; others, by fourse; others, by twelves."

—Churchill. "Three fourths, nine tenths."—Id. "Time's takings and leavings."—Barton. "The yeas and nays."—Newpaper. "The ays and new."—Ibid. "The ins and the outs."—Ibid. "His ands and his ora."

"One of the buts."—Fixels. "In raising the mirth of stupids."—Steels.

GENDERS.

K Genders, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex.

Oss.—The different genders are founded on the natural distinction of sex in animals, and on the absence of sex in other things. In English, they belong only to nouns and pronouns; and to these they are usually applied agreeably to the order of nature. Pronouns are of the same gender as the nouns for which they stand.

There are three genders; the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

The masculine gender is that which denotes persons or acimals of the male kind; as, man, father, king.

The feminine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the female kind; as, woman, mother, queen.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female; as, pen, ink, paper.

Oss. 1.—Some nouns are equally applicable to both sexes; as, cousin, friend, neighbour, parent, person, servant. The gender of these is usually determined by the context. To such words, some grammarians have applied the unnecessary and improper term common gender. Murray justly observes, "There is no such gender belonging to the language. The business of rarsing, can be effectually performed without having recourse to a common gender." The term is more useful, and less liable to objection, as applied to the learned languages; but with us it is plainly a solecism.

Oss. 2.—Generic names, even when construed as masculine or feminine, often virtually include both sexes; as, "Hast thou given the horse strength? hast thou clothed his neck with thunder?"—"Doth the hand fly by thy wisedom, and stretch her wings toward the south?"—Job. These have been called picene nouns—that is, supercommon; but they are to be parsed each according to the gender of the pronoun which is put for it.

Oss. 3.—Those terms which are equally applicable to both sexes, (if they are not expressly applied to females,) and those plurals which are known to include both sexes, should be called masculine in parsing; for, in all languages, the masculine gender is considered the most worthy, and is generally employed when both sexes are included under one common term.

Oss. 4.—The sexes are distinguished in three ways:

Oss. 4.—The sexes are distinguished in three ways:

USS. 4.—Ine sexes are distinguished in three ways:

I. By the use of different names: as, backelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cou; cock, hen; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; friar, nun; gander, goose; hart, roe; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; man, woman; master, mistress; milter, spauner; nephew, niece; rum, ewe; sloven, slut; son, daughter; stag, hind; sleer, heifer; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch.

II. By the use of different terminations: as. abbot. abbeas: administrator.

II. By the use of different terminations: as, abbot, abbess; administrator, administrator; adulterer, adulteres; bridegroom, bride; caterer, cateres, duke, duchess; emperor, emperess or empress; executor, executor, egovernor, governes; hero, heroine; landgrave, landgravine; margrave, margravine;

marquis, marchioness; sorcerer, sorceress; sultan, sultaness or sultana; testator, testatrix; tutor, tutoress or tutress; widower, widow.

The following nouns become feminine by merely adding ess; baron, deacon, heir, host, jew, lion, mayor, patron, peer, poet, priest, prior, prophet, shepherd,

viscount.

The following nouns become feminine by rejecting the last vowel, and adding ess; actor, ambassador, arbiter, benefactor, chanter, conductor, doctor, elector, enchanter, founder, hunter, idolator, inventor, prince, protector, songwier, spectator, suitor, tiger, traitor, votary.

III. By prefixing an attribute of distinction: as, cock-eparrow, hen-eparrow; man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat; male relations, female relations.

Oss. 5.—The names of things without life, used literally, are always of the neuter gender. But inanimate objects are often represented figuratively, as having sex. Things remarkable for power, greatness, or sublimity, are spoken of as masculine; as, the sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war. Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific, are spoken of as feminine; as, the moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace.

Oss. 6.—Nouns of multitude, when they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are of the neuter gender; but when they convey the idea of plurality without the form, they follow the gender of the individuals that compose the assemblage.

compose the assemblage.

Obs. 7.—Creatures whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be regarded, are generally spoken of as neuter; as, "He fired at the *deer*, and wounded it."—"If a man shall steal an ∞ or a sheep, and kill it or sell it;" &c.— Ecodus, xxii, 1.

CASES.

Cases, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words.

OBS.—The cases are founded on the different relations under which things are represented in discourse, and from which the words acquire correspondent relations, or become dependent one on an other, according to the sense. In English, these modifications, or relations, belong only to nouns and pronouns. Pronouns are not necessarily like their antecedents, in case.

There are three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb: as, The boy runs; I run.

OBS.—The subject of a finite verb is that which answers to who or what before it; as, "The boy runs"—Who runs? The boy. Boy is therefore here in the nominative case.

The possessive case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the relation of property: as, The boy's hat; my hat.

Obs. 1.—The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative s preceded by an apostrophe; and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in s, by adding an apostrophe only: as, singular, boy's; plural, boys';—sounded alike, but written differently.

One. 2.—Plural nouns that do not end in s, usually form the possessive

case in the same manner as the singular; as, man's, men's.

OBS. 3.—When the singular and the plural are alike in the nominative, the spostrophe, which (as Dr. Johnson has shown) is merely a sign of the

case, and not of elision, ought to follow the s in the plural, to distinguish it from the singular; as, sheep's, sheeps'.

Obs. 4.—The apostrophic s adds a syllable to the noun, when it will not

unite with the sound in which the nominative ends; as, torch's, pronounced

Obs. 5.—The apostrophe and s are sometimes added to mere characters, to denote phurakity, and not the possessive case; as, Two a's—three b's—four 9's. In the following example, they are used to give the sound of a verbal termination to words that are not properly verbe: "When a man in a solitour reasons with himself, and pro's and coa's, and weighs all his designs," &c.—Congreve.

The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition: as, I know the boy; he knows

Obs. 1.—The object of a verb, participle, or preposition, is that which answers to whom or what after it; as, "I know the boy."—I know whom? The boy. Boy is therefore here in the objective case.

Oss. —The nominative and the objective of nouns, are always alike in form, being distinguishable from each other only by their place in a sentence, or their simple dependence according to the sense.

THE DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

The declension of a noun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases. Thus:—

EXAMPLE I .- FRIEND. Sing. Nom. friend, Plur. Nom. friends, Poss. friend's, Poss. friends'. Obj. friend; Obj. friends. EXAMPLE II. --- MAN. Sing. Nom. Plur. Nom. man. men, Poss. Poss. man's. men's. Obi. man; Obi. men. EXAMPLE III .- FOX. Sing. Nom. fox, Plur. Nom. foxes. Poss. Poss. foxes', fox's, Obj. Obj. fox; foxes. EXAMPLE IV .-- FLY. fly, Sing. Nom. Plur. Nom. eein, Poss. fly's, Poss. flies' . Obj. fly; Obj. flies,

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS II .- ETYMOLOGICAL.

In the Second Praxis, it is required of the pupil-to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles and nouns.

The definitions to be given in the Second Praxis, are two for an article, six for a noun—and one for an adjective, a pronoun, a verb, a participle, an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition, or an interjection. Thus :-

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"James is a lad of uncommon talents."

James is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case.
1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be

known or mentioned.

2. A proper noun is the name of some particular individual, or

people, or group.

8. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

The masculine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind.

6. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun. which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb.

Is is a verb.

- 1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.
- A is the indefinite article,

 1. An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns, to limit their signification.

2. The indefinite article is an or a, which denotes one thing of a

kind, but not any particular one.

Lad is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case.

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be

known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things.

3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

The singular number is that which denotes but one.

5. The masculine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind.

6. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb.

Of is a preposition.

 A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun.

Uncommon is an adjective.

1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

Talente is a common noun, of the third person, plural number, neuter gender, and objective case.

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things.

The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The plural number is that which denotes more than one.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

6. The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

LESSON I.

Science strengthens and enlarges the mind.—Murray.

A large ship, traversing the ocean by the force of the wind, is a noble proof of the power and ingenuity of man.

When spring returns, the trees resume their verdure, and

the plants and flowers display their beauty.

> I John saw these things and heard them.—Bible.

And the king spake and said to Daniel, 'O Daniel! servant / of the living God, is thy God, whom thou servest continually, able to deliver thee from the lions?'—Ib.

LESSON II.

And all the king's servants, that were in the king's gate. bowed and reverenced Haman; but Mordecai bowed not, nor did him reverence.—Bible.

Esther put on her royal apparel, and stood in the inner

court of the king's house.—Ib.

A mother's tenderness and a father's care are nature's gifts for man's advantage.—Murray.

Then shall man's pride and dulness comprehend His actions', passions', being's use and end.—Pope.

CHAPTER IV.—OF ADJECTIVES.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun. and generally expresses quality: as, A wise man; a new book. You two are diligent.

CLASSES.

Adjectives may be divided into six classes; namely, common, proper, numeral, pronominal, participial, and compound.

I. A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation; as, Good, bad, peaceful, warlike-eastern, western, outer, inner.

II. A proper adjective is one that is formed from a pro-

per name; as, American, English, Platonic.

III. A numeral adjective is one that expresses a defi-

nite number; as, One, two, three, four, five, six, &c.

IV. A pronominal adjective is a definitive word which may either accompany its noun, or represent it understood; as, "All join to guard what each desires to gain." That is, All men join to guard what each man -Pope. desires to gain.

V. A participial adjective is one that has the form of a participle, but differs from it by rejecting the idea of

time; as, An amusing story.

VI. A compound adjective, is one that consists of two or more words joined together; as, Nut-brown, laughterloving, four-footed.

Obs. 1.—Numeral adjectives are of three kinds: namely,

Oss. 1.—Numeral adjectives are of three kinds: namely,
1. Curdinal; as, One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten,
eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, &c.
2. Ordinal; as, First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth,
ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, &c.
3. Multiplicative; as, Single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, quintuple or fivefold, sextuple or sixfold, septuple or sevenfold, octuple or eightfold, &c.
Oss. 2.—Compound adjectives, being formed at pleasure, are very numerous and various. Many of them embrace numerals, and run on in a series;
as, one-leaved, two-leaved, four-leaved, &c.

as, one-leaved, two-leaved, three-leaved, four-leaved, &c.

MODIFICATIONS.

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but the forms of comparison.

Comparison is a variation of the adjective to express quality in different degrees; as, hard, harder, hardest.

There are three degrees of comparison; the positive,

the comparative, and the superlative.

The positive degree is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form; as, hard, soft, good.

The comparative degree is that which exceeds the pos-

itive; as, harder, softer, better.

The superlative degree is that which is not exceeded; as, hardest, softest, best.

Those adjectives whose signification does not admit of

different degrees, cannot be compared; as, two, second,

all, total, immortal, infinite.

Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs; as, skillful, more skillful, most skillful—skillful, less skillful, least skillful.

REGULAR COMPARISON.

Adjectives are regularly compared, when the comparative degree is expressed by adding cr, and the superlative, by adding est to them; as,

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative	
great,	greater,	greatest.	
*wide,	wider,	widest.	
hot.	hotter.	hottest.	

The regular method of comparison is chiefly applicable to monosyllables, and to dissyllables ending in y or mute e.

COMPARISON BY ADVERBS.

The different degrees of a quality may also be expressed, with precisely the same import, by prefixing to the adjective the adverbs more and most: as, wise, more wise, most wise; famous, more famous, most famous; amiable, more amiable, most amiable.

The degrees of diminution are expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs less and least: as, wise, less wise, least wise; famous, less famous, least famous; amiable, less amiable, least amiable.

Obs. 1.—Adjectives of more than one syllable, except dissyllables ending in y or mute e, rarely admit a change of termination, but are rather compared by means of the adverbs: thus we say, virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; but not virtuous, virtuouser, virtuousest.

Obs. 2.—The prefixing of an adverb can hardly be called a variation of the adjective; the words may with more propriety be parsed separately, the degree being ascribed to the adverb—or, if you please, to both words; for both are varied in sense by the inflection of the former.

both are varied in sense by the inflection of the former.

Oss. 8.—The degrees in which qualities may exist in nature, are infinitely various; but the only degrees with which the grammarian is concerned, are those which our variation of the adjective or adverb enables us to express. Whenever the adjective itself denotes these degrees, they properly belong to it; as, worthy, worthier, worthiest. If an adverb is employed for this purpose, that also is compared, and the two degrees formed are properly its own; as, worthy, more worthy, most worthy. But these same degrees may be otherwise expressed; as, worthy, in a higher degree worthy, in the highest degree worthy. Here also the adjective worthy is virtually compared as before; but only the adjective high is grammatically modified. Many grammarians have erroneously parsed the adverbs more and most, less and least, as parts of the adjective. adjective.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: good, better, best; bad or ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most; many, more, most.

Obs. 1.—In English, and also in Latin, most adjectives that denote place or situation, not only form the superlative irregularly, but are also either re-

dundant or defective in comparison. Thus:—

I. The following nine have more than one superlative: far, further, farthest, furmost or farthermost; near, nearer, nearest or next; fore, former, foremost or first; hind, hinder, hindmost or hindermost; in, inner, inmost or innermost; out, outer or utter, outmost or utmost, outermost or uttermost; up, upper, upmost or uppermost; low, lower, lowest or lowermost; late, later, or

upper, upmost or uppermose, was, was, it is also in common uses.

II. The following five want the positive: [aft, adv.,] after, aftmost, or aftermost; [forth, adv.,] further, furthest or furthermost; hither, hithermost; nether, nethermost; under, undermost.

III. The following want the comparative: front, frontmost; rear, rearmost; head, headmost; end, endmost; top, topmost; bottom, bottommost; mid or middle, midst, midmost or middlemost; north, northmost; south, southmost; northern, northernmost; southern, southernmost; eastern, easternmost; eastern westernmost.

western, westernmost.
Ons. 2.—Many of these irregular adjectives are also in common use, as

nouns, adverbs, or prepositions; the sense in which they are employed will show to what class they belong.

Oss. 8.—The words fore and hind, front and rear, head and end, right and left, in and out, high and low, top and bottom, up and down, upper and under, mid and after, are often joined in composition with other words; and some

ma and after, are often joined in composition with other words; and some of them, when used as adjectives of place, are rarely separated from their nouns; as, in-land, mid-sea, after-ages, &c.

Obs. 4.—It may be remarked of the comparatives, former and latter or hinder, upper and under or nother, inner and outer or utter, after and hither or as well as of the Latin superior and inferior, anterior and posterior, interior and exterior, prior and ulterior, senior and junior, major and minor; that they cannot, like other comparatives, be construed with the conjunction than, introducing the latter term of comparison; for we never say, one thing

is former, superior, &c., Than an other.

Obs. 5.—Common adjectives, or epithets denoting quality, are more numer-Obs. 5.—Common adjectives, or epithets denoting quanty, are more numerous than all the other classes put together. Many of these, and a few that are pronominal, may be varied by comparison; and some participial adjectives may be compared by means of the adverbs. But adjectives formed from proper names, all the numerals, and most of the compounds, are in no way susceptible of comparison.

Obs. 6.—Nouns are often used as adjectives; as, An iron bar—An evening school—A mahogany chair—A South-Sea dream. These also are incapable

of comparison.

OBS. 7.—The numerals are often used as nouns; and, as such, are regularly declined; as, Such a one—One's own self—The little ones—By tens—For twenty's sake—By fifties—Two millions.

Obs. 8.—Comparatives, and the word other, are sometimes also employed

as nouns, and have the regular declension; as, Our superiors—His betters— The elder's advice—An* other's wo—Let others do as they will. But, as adjectives, these words are invariable.

Oss. 9.—Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are expressed, simply relate to them, and have no modifications: except this and that, which form

^{*}There seems to be no good reason for joining an and other. An here excludes any other article; and analogy and consistency require that the words be separated. Their union has led sometimes to an improper repetition of the article; as, 'Another such a man,'-for, 'An other such man.'

the plural these and those; and much, many, and a few others, which are

Oss. 10.—Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are not expressed, may be parsed as representing them in person, number, gender, and case; but those who prefer it, may supply the ellipsis, and parse the adjective simply as an adjective.

as an adjective.

Oss. 11.—The following are the principal pronominal adjectives: All, any, both, certain, divers, each, either, else, enough, every, few, former, first, latter, last, little, less, least, much, many, more, most, neither, no or none,* one, only, other, own, same, several, some, such, this, that, these, those, which, what.

Oss. 12.—Which and what, when they are not prefixed to nouns, are, for the most part, relative or interrogative pronouns.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS III.-ETYMOLOGICAL.

In the Third Praxis, it is required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles, nouns, and adjectives.

The definitions to be given in the Third Praxis, are two for an article, six for a noun, three for an adjective—and one for a pronoun, a verb, a participle, an adverb, a conjunction, a Thus :preposition, or an interjection.

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"I prefer the shortest course, though some other may be less intricate."

I is a pronoun.

1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

Prefer is a verb.

- 1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon. The is the definite article.
 - 1. An article is the word the, an or a, which we put before nouns, to limit their signification.
 - 2. The definite article is the, which denotes some particular thing or
- Shortest is a common adjective, of the superlative degree; compared, short, shorter, shortest.
 - 1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.
 - 2. A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation.
- 3. The superlative degree is that which is not exceeded. Course is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter
 - gender, and objective case.

 1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

^{*} No and none seem to be only different forms of the same adjective; the former being used before a noun expressed, and the latter when the noun is understood, or not placed after the adjective; as, "For none of us liveth to himself, and no man dieth to himself."—Romans, xiv, 7.

- 2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things.
- 8. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

- 5. The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.
- 6. The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

Though is a conjunction.

1. A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected.

Some is a pronominal adjective, not compared.

1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

2. A pronominal adjective is a definitive word which may either

accompany its noun, or represent it understood.

8. Those adjectives whose signification does not admit of different degrees, cannot be compared.

Other is a pronominal adjective, representing course understood, in the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case. [See Obs. 10th, page 59.]

1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally

expresses quality.

2. A pronominal adjective is a definitive word which may either

accompany its noun, or represent it understood.

3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

I. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

5. The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female. 6. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun.

which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb. May be is a verb.

- 1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon. Less is an adverb.
 - 1. An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

Intricate is a common adjective, compared by means of the adverbs.

1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

2. A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denot-

ing quality or situation.

8. Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs.

LESSON I.

There is an easier and better way than this.

Earthly joys are few and transitory.

Heavenly rewards are complete and eternal.

The best and wisest men are sometimes in fault.

Demosthenes was a famous Grecian orator.

This plain old man has more wit than all his opponents. The three rooms on the second floor, are smaller and less

convenient than the others.

The largest and most glorious machines contrived and erected by human skill, are not worthy of a comparison with the magnificent productions of nature.

LESSON II.

The first years of man must make provision for the last. External things are naturally variable, but truth and reason are always the same.—Johnson.

'To him that lives well,' answered the hermit, 'every form of life is good; nor can I give any other rule for choice, than

to remove from all apparent evil. -Id.

Come, calm Content, serene and sweet! O gently guide my pilgrim feet To find thy hermit cell; Where, in some pure and equal sky. Beneath thy soft indulgent eye, The modest virtues dwell.—Barbauld.

CHAPTER V.—OF PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, The boy loves his book; he has long lessons, and he learns them well.

Oss. 1.—The word for which a pronoun stands, is called its antecedent, because it usually precedes the pronoun. But some have limited the term antecedent, to the word represented by a relative.
Oss. 2.—The pronouns I and thou in their different modifications, stand immediately for persons that are, in general, sufficiently known without being named; (I meaning the speaker, and thou the hearer;) their antecedents are therefore generally understood.

or absolute sense, to denote persons or things not previously mentioned; as, "He that hath knowledge, spareth his words."

Oss. 4.—A pronoun with which a question is asked, stands for some person or thing unknown to the speaker; the noun, therefore, cannot occur before it, but may be used after it or instead of it.

Oss. 5.—The personal and the interrogative pronouns often stand in construction as the antecedents to other pronouns; as, *He that* arms his intent with virtue is invincible."—"Who that has any moral sense, dares tell lies?"

CLASSES.

Pronouns are divided into three classes; personal, relative, and interrogative.

I. A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what person it is.

The simple personal pronouns are five: namely, I, of

the first person; thou, of the second person; he, she, and

it, of the third person. The compound personal pronouns are also five: namely, myself, of the first person; thyself, of the second per-

son; himself, herself, and itself, of the third person. II. A relative pronoun is a pronoun that represents an

antecedent word or phrase, and connects different clauses of a sentence.

The relative pronouns are who, which, what, and that; and the compounds whoever or whosoever, whichever or which soever, whatever or whatsoever.

What is a kind of double relative, equivalent to that or those which; and is to be parsed, first as antecedent, and then as relative.

III. An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun with which a question is asked.

The interrogative pronouns are who, which, and what; being the same in form as relatives.

One 1.—Who is usually applied to persons only; which, though formerly applied to persons, is now confined to animals and inanimate things: what (as a mere pronoun) is applied to things only: that is applied indifferently

(as a mere pronoun) is applied to things only: that is applied indifferently to persons, animals, or things.

Oss. 2.—The pronoun what has a twofold relation, and is often used (by ellipsis of the noun) both as antecedent and relative, being equivalent to that which, or the thing which. In this double relation, what represents two cases at the same time: as, "He is ashamed of what he has done; "that is, of that [thing] which he has done. It is usually of the singular number, though sometimes plural; as, "I must turn to the faults, or what appear such to ne."—Byron. "All distortions and mimicries, as such, are what raise aversion in stead of pleasure.—Steele.

Oss. 3. - What is sometimes used both as an adjective and a relative at the same time, and is placed before the noun which it represents: as, "What money we had was taken away;" that is, All the money that we had, &c.

"What man but enters, dies," that is, Any man who, &c. "What god but enters you forbidden field."—Pope. Indeed, it does not admit of being construed after a noun, as a simple relative. The compound whatever or whatevever has the same peculiarities of construction; as, "We will certainly do whatevever thing goeth forth out of our own mouth."—Jer., xliv, 17.

Oss. 4.—Who, which, and what, when the affix ever or sever is added, have an unlimited signification; and, as some general term, such as any person, or any thing, is usually employed as the antecedent, they are all commonly followed by two verbs: as, "Whoever attends, will improve;" that is, Any person who attends, will improve. In parsing, supply the antecedent. Oss. 5.—Which and what are often prefixed to nouns as definitive or interrogative adjectives; and, as such, may be applied to persons as well as to things: as, "What man?"—"Which boy?"
Oss. 6.—The word that is a relative pronoun, when it is equivalent to who, same time, and is placed before the noun which it represents: as, "What

Obs. 6.—The word that is a relative pronoun, when it is equivalent to who, whom, or which; as, "The days that [which] are past, are gone forever." It is a definitive or pronominal adjective, when it relates to a noun expressed or understood after it; as, "That book is new." In other cases, it is a conjunction, as, "Live well, that you may die well."

Obs. 7.—The relative that has this peculiarity, that it cannot follow the word on which its case depends: thus, it is said, [John, xiii, 29,] "Buy

those things that we have need of ;" but we cannot say, "Buy those things

of that we have need."

Ons. 8.—The word as, though usually a conjunction or an adverb, has sometimes the construction of a relative pronoun; as, "The Lord added to the church daily such [persons] as should be saved."—Acts, ii, 47.

Oss. 9.— Whether was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun, referring to one of two things; as, "Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?"

-*Matt.*, xxiii, 17.

Oss. 10.—Interrogative pronouns differ from relatives chiefly in this; that, as the subject referred to is unknown to the speaker, they do not relate to a preceding noun, but to something which is to be expressed in the answer to the question. Their person, number, and gender, therefore, are not regulated by an antecedent noun; but by what the speaker supposes of a subject which may, or may not, agree with them in these respects: as, "What lies there?" Ans. "Two men asleep."

MODIFICATIONS.

Pronouns have the same modifications as nouns: namely, Persons, Numbers, Genders, and Cases.

Oss. 1.—In the personal pronouns, most of these properties are distinguished by the words themselves; in the relative and the interrogative pronouns, they are ascertained chiefly by the antecedent and the verb.

One. 2.—The personal pronouns of the first and second persons, are equally applicable to both sexes; and should be considered masculine or feminine according to the known application of them. [See Levizac's French Gram., p. 78.] The speaker and the hearer, being present to each other, of course know the sex to which they respectively belong; and, whenever they appear in narrative, we are told who they are. In Latin, an adjective or a participle relating to these pronouns, is varied to agree with them in number, gender, and case; as,

> Miseræ hoc'tamen unum Exequere, Anna, mihi: solam nam perfidus ille To colore, arcanos etiam tibi credere sensus; Sola viri molles aditus et tempora noras.— Virgil.

Obs. 8.—Many grammarians deny the first person of nouns, and the gender of pronouns of the first and second persons; and at the same time teach, that, "Pronouns must always agree with their antecedents, and the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person."—Murray's Gram., 2d Ed., 1798. Now, no two words can agree in any property which belongs not to both!

THE DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

The declension of a pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

SIMPLE PERSONALS.

The simple personal pronouns are thus declined:—

I, of the first person, any of the genders.

Plur. Nom. we, Sing. Nom. I. Poss. our, or ours,

Poss. my, or mine, me; Obj. Obj.

^{*} That the pronouns of the first and second persons are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine, is perfectly certain; but whether they can or cannot be neuter, is a question difficult to be decided. To things inanimate they are only applied figur-

Thou, of the second person, any of the genders.

Sing. Nom. thou, Plur. Nom. ye,* or you, Poss. thy, or thine, Poss. your, or yours, Obi. Obj. thee: you.

HE, of the THIRD PERSON, masculine gender.

Sing. Nom. he. Plur. Nom. they, Poss. his, Poss. their, or theirs. Obj. him; Obi. them.

SHE, of the THIRD PERSON, feminine gender.

Sing. Nom. she, Plur. Nom. they, Poss. her, or hers, Poss. their, or theirs, Obj. her; Obj. them.

It, of the third person, neuter gender.

Sing. Nom. it, Plur. Nom. they, Poss. their, or theirs, Poss. its, Obj. it:

Ons. 1.—Most of the personal pronouns have two forms of the possessive case, in each number; as, my or mine, our or ours; thy or thine, you or yours; her or hers, their or theirs. The former is used before a noun expressed; the latter, when the governing noun is understood, or so placed as not immediately to follow the pronoun; as, "My powers are thine."—Mont-

OBS. 2.—Mine and thine were formerly used before all words beginning with a vowel sound; my and thy, before others: as, "It was thou, a man, mine equal, my guide, and mine acquaintence."—Psalm. But this usage is now obsolete, or peculiar to the poets; as,

"Time writes no wrinkle on thine azure brow."—Byron.

COMPOUND PERSONALS.

The word selft added to the simple personal pronouns, forms the class of compound personal pronouns; which are used when an action reverts upon the agent, and also when

atively; and the question is, whether the figure always necessarily changes the gender of the antecedent noun. Pronouns are of the same gender as the nouns for which they stand; and if, in the following example, gold and diumond are neuter, so is the pronoun ms. And, if not neuter, of what gender are they?

"Where thy true treasure? Gold says, 'Not in me;' And, 'Not in me,' the diamond. Gold is poor."— Young.

And, 'Not in me,' the diamona. Gold is poor."— Young.

* The use of the pronoun ye is mostly confined to the solemn style, and to the burleque. In the latter, it is sometimes used for the objective case.

† In ancient times, he, his, and him, were applied to things neuter. In our translation of the Bible, the pronoun it is employed in the nominative and the objective, but his is retained in the possessive, neuter; as, "Look not thou upon the wine, when it is retained in the possessive, neuter; as, "Look not thou upon the wine, when it is retained in the possessive, neuter; as, "Look not thou upon the wine, when it is retained in the possessive, neuter; as, "Look not thou upon the wine, when it is retained in the possessive, neuter; as, "Look not thou upon the wine, when it is retained in the Bible, except by misprint.

‡ The word self was originally an adjection; but when used alone, it is now generally a noum. This may have occasioned the diversity in the formation of the compound personal pronouns. Dr. Johnson calls self a pronoum; but he explains it as being both adjection and substantion.

some persons are to be distinguished from others: as, sing. myself, plur. ourselves; sing. thyself, plur. yourselves; sing. himself,* plur. themselves; sing. herself, plur. themselves; sing. itself, plur. themselves. They all want the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective.

RELATIVES AND INTERROGATIVES.

The relative and the interrogative pronouns are thus declined :-

Who, applied only to persons.						
Sing.	Poss.	who, whose, whom;	Plur.		who, whose, whom,	
WHICH, applied to animals and things.						
Sing.	Poss.	which, t which;	Plur.	Poss.	which,	
What, generally applied to things.						
Sing.	Nom. Poss. Obj.		Plur.	Nom. Poss. Obj.		
THAT, applied to persons, animals, and things.						
Sing.	Nom. Poss.		Plur.	Nom. Poss.		

COMPOUND RELATIVES.

Obi. that.

Obj. that;

The compound relative pronouns, whoever or whosoever, whichever or whichsoever, and whatever or whatsoever, are declined in the same manner as the simples, who, which, what,

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS IV .-- ETYMOLOGICAL.

In the Fourth Praxis, it is required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes

^{*} Hisself, itself, and thetreelves, are more analogical than himself, itself, themselves; but custom has rejected the former, and established the latter. When an adjective is prefixed to self, the pronouns are written separately in the possessive case; as, My single self.—My own self.—His own self.—Their own selves.

† Whose is sometimes used as the possessive case of which; as, "A religion whose origin is divine."—Blair.

and modifications of the articles, nouns, adjectives, and pronouns.

The definitions to be given in the Fourth Praxis are, two for an article, six for a noun, three for an adjective, six for a pronoun—and one for a verb, a participle, an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition, or an interjection. Thus:

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"She met them."

She is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, feminine gender, and nominative case.
1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.
2. A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what

- person it is.

 The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

- 5. The feminine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the female kind.
- 6. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb.

Met is a verb.

1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon. Them is a personal pronoun, of the third person, plural number, masculine gender, and objective case.

- A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.
 A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what
- person it is.

 The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

 The plural number is that which denotes more than one.

5. The masculine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind.

The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

LESSON I.

I who was present, know the particulars.

He who has not virtue, is not truly wise.

An enemy that disguises himself under the veil of friendship, is worse than one that declares open hostility.

He that improperly reveals a secret, injures both himself and them to whom he tells it.

Eye me, blest Providence, and square my trial To my proportion'd strength!—Shepherd, lead on.

LESSON II.

All men have their frailties. Whoever looks for a friend without imperfections, will never find what he seeks: we love ourselves with all our faults; and we ought to love our friends in like manner.

Selina's benevolence and piety engaged the esteem of all who knew her.

When the Saxons subdued the Britons, they introduced into England their own language; which was a dialect of the Teutonic, or Gothic.—Allen.

LESSON III.

Disguise thyself as thou wilt, still, Slavery! still thou art a bitter draught; and though thousands in all ages have been made to drink of thee, thou art no less bitter on that account.—Sterne.

Redeem we time?—its loss we dearly buy.
What pleads Lorenzo for his high-priz'd sports?
He pleads time's num'rous blanks; he loudly pleads
The straw-like trifles on life's common stream.
From whom those blanks and trifles, but from thee?
No blank, no trifle, nature made or meant.—Young.

CHAPTER VI.—OF VERBS.

A Verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon: as, I am, I rule, I am ruled; I love, thou lovest, he loves.

CLASSES.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their form, into four classes; regular, irregular, redundant, and defective.

I. A regular verb is a verb that forms the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed; as, love, loven, loving, loven.

II. An *irregular verb* is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed;

as, see, saw, seeing, seen.

III. A redundant verb is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, thrive, thrived or throve, thriving, thrived or thriven.

IV. A defective verb is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, be-

ware, ought, quoth.

Oss.—Regular verbs form their preterit and perfect participle, by adding d to final e, and ed to all other terminations. The verb hear, heard, hearing, heard, adds d to r, and is therefore irregular.

Verbs are divided again, with respect to their signification, into four classes; active-transitive, active-intransitive, passive, and neuter.

I. An active-transitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which has some person or thing for its object; as,

"Cain slew Abel."

II. An active-intransitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, "John walks."

III. A passive verb is a verb that represents its subject. or nominative, as being acted upon; as, "I am com-

pelled."

IV. A neuter verb is a verb that expresses neither action nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being; as. "Thou art."—"He sleeps."

Obs. 1.—In most grammars and dictionaries, verbs are divided into three Oss. 1.—In most grammars and dictionaries, verbs are divided into three classes only; active, passive, and neuter. In such a division, the class of active verbs includes those only which are active-transitive, and all the active-intransitive verbs are called neuter. But, in the division adopted above, active-intransitive verbs are made a distinct class; and those only are regarded as neuter, which imply a state of existence without action. When, therefore, we speak of verbs without reference to their regimen, we apply the simple term active to all those which express action, whether transitive or intransitive. "We act whenever we do any thing; but we may act without doing any thing."—Crabb's Synonymes.

Oss. 2.—Active-transitive verbs generally take the agent before them and

Obs. 2.—Active-transitive verbs generally take the agent before them and the object after them; as, "Cæsar conquered Pompey." Passive verbs (which are derived from active-transitive verbs) reverse this order, and denote that the subject, or nominative, is affected by the action; and the agent follows, being introduced by the preposition by: as, "Pompey was conquered by Cæsar."

Oss. 3.—Most active verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively. Active verbs are transitive when there is any person or thing expressed or clearly implied, upon which the action terminates; when they do not govern such an object, they are intransitive.

Oss. 4.—Some verbs may be used either in an active or a neuter sense. In the sentence, "Here I rest," rest is a neuter verb; but in the sentence, "Here I rest my hopes," rest is an active-transitive verb, and governs kopes. Oss. 5.—An active-intransitive verb, followed by a preposition and its object, will sometimes admit of being put into the passive form, the object the preposition being assumed for the nominative, and the preposition being retained with the verb, as an adverb: as, (Active,) "They laughed at him."—(Passive,) "He was laughed at."

MODIFICATIONS.

Verbs have modifications of four kinds; namely, *Moods*, Tenses, Persons, and Numbers.

MOODS.

Moods are different forms of the verb, each of which

expresses the being, action, or passion, in some particular manner.

There are five moods; the *Infinitive*, the *Indicative*,

the Potential, the Subjunctive, and the Imperative.

The Infinitive mood is that form of the verb, which expresses the being, action, or passion, in an unlimited manner, and without person or number: as, To read, to speak.

The Indicative mood is that form of the verb, which simply indicates, or declares a thing: as, I write; you

know: or asks a question; as, Do you know?

The Potential mood is that form of the verb, which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity, of the being, action, or passion: as, I can read; we must go.

The Subjunctive mood is that form of the verb, which represents the being, action, or passion, as conditional, doubtful, and contingent: as, "If thou go, see that thou

offend not."

The Imperative mood is that form of the verb, which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting: as, "Depart thou."—"Be comforted."—"Forgive me."—"Go in peace."

Oss. 1.—The infinitive mood is distinguished by the preposition to, which, with a few exceptions, immediately precedes it. In dictionaries, to is generally prefixed to verbs, to distinguish them from other parts of speech. A verb in any other mood than the infinitive, is called, by way of distinction,

Obs. 2.—The potential mood is known by the signs may, can, must, might,

could, would, and should. This mood as well as the indicative may be used in asking a question; as, Must we go?

One. 3.—The subjunctive mood is always connected with an other verb. Its dependence is usually denoted by a conjunction; as, if, that, though, lest,

Oss. 4.—The *indicative* and *potential* moods, in all their tenses, may be used in the same dependent manner; but this seems not to be a sufficient reason for considering them as parts of the subjunctive mood.*

In regard to the number and form of the tenses which should constitute the subjunctive mood in English, grammarians are greatly at variance; and some, supposing its distinctive parts to be but elliptical forms of the indicative or the potential, even deny the existence of such a mood altogether. On this point, the instructions published by Lindley Murray are exceedingly vague and inconsistent. The early editions of his Grammar gave to this mood size tenses, none of which had any of the personal inflections; consequently there was, in all the tenses, some difference between it and the indicative. His later editions make the subjunctive exactly like the indicative, except in the present tense, and in the choice of auxiliaries for the second-future. Both ways be goes too far. And while at last he restricts the distinctive form of the subjunctive to arrower bounds than he ought, and argues against, if thou loved, If thou knew, &c., he gives this mood not only the last five tenses of the indicative, but also all those of the potential; alleging, "that as the indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, by the expression of a condition, motive, wish, supposition, &c. being supradded to it, so the potential mood may, in like manner, be turned into the subjunctive."—

**Murr. Gram., Oct., p. 83. According to this, the subjunctive mood of every regular.

TENSES.

Tenses are those modifications of the verb, which dis-

tinguish time.

There are six tenses; the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the Pluperfect, the First-future, and the Secondfuture.

The Present tense is that which expresses what now exists, or is taking place: as, "I hear a noise; somebody

is comina."

The Imperfect tense is that which expresses what took place, or was occurring, in time fully past: as, "I saw him yesterday; he was walking out."

The Perfect tense is that which expresses what has taken place, within some period of time not yet fully past:

as, "I have seen him to-day."

The Pluperfect tense is that which expresses what had taken place, at some past time mentioned: as, "I had seen him, when I met you."

The First-future tense is that which expresses what

will take place hereafter: as, "I shall see him again."

The Second-future tense is that which expresses what will have taken place, at some future time mentioned: as, "I shall have seen him by to-morrow noon."

Ors. 1.—The terms here defined are the names usually given to those parts of the verb to which they are in this work applied; and though some of them are not so strictly appropriate as scientific names ought to be, we think it inexpedient to change them.

or the indicative mood, are the most definite. The time expressed by the same tenses (or what are called by the same names) in the other moods, is frequently relative, and sometimes indefinite.

Obs. 3.—The present tense, in the indicative mood, expresses general truths, and customary actions; as, "Vice produces misery."—"She often

verb embraces, in one voice, as many as one hundred and thirty-eight different expressions; and it may happen that in one single tense a verb shall have no fewer than fifteen different forms in each person and number. Six times fifteen are ninety; and so many are the several phrases which now compose Murray's pluperfect tense of the subjunctive mood of the verb to strovo—a tense which most grammarians very properly reject as needless! But this is not all. The scheme not only confounds the moods, and overwhelms the learner with its multiplicity, but condemns as bad English what the author himself once adopted as the imperfect subjunctive, "If thou loved," &c., wherein he was sustained by Dr. Priestly and others of high authority. Dr. Johnson, indeed, made the preterit subjunctive like the indicative; and this may have induced the author to change his plan, and inflect this part of the verb with st. But Dr. Alexander Murray very positively declares this to be wrong: "When such words as if, though, unless, except, whether, and the like, are used before verbs, they less their terminations of est, etc., and s, in those persons which commonly have them. No speaker of good English, expressing himself conditionally, says, Though thou fulles, or Though he fulls, but, Though thou full, and Though he full; nor Though thou comes, but Though, or although, thou come."—Hist. Europ. Lang., Vol. 1 p. 55.

visits us." We also use it in speaking of persons who are dead, but whose works remain; as, "Seneca ressons well."

works remain; as, "Seneca receous well."

One. 4.—The present tense in the subjunctive mood, and in the other moods when preceded by as soon as, after, before, till, or when, is generally used with reference to future time; as, "If he ask a fish, will he give him a serpent?"—Matt., vi, 10. "When he arrives, I will send for you."

One. 5.—In animated narrative, the present tense is sometimes substituted (by the figure enallage) for the imperfect; as, "As he lay indulging himself in state, he sees let down from the ceiling a glittering sword, hung by a single hair."—Th. of Gioero. "Ulysses wakes, not knowing where he was."—Pope.

One. 6.—The present infinitive can scarcely be said to express any particular time. It is usually dependent on an other verb, and, therefore, relative in time. It may be connected with any tense of any mood; as, "I intend to do it, I intended to do it, I have intended to do it;" &c. It is often used to express futurity; as, "The time to come."—"The world to come."—"Rapture yet to be." ture yet to be."
One. 7.—The imperfect tense of the indicative mood, in its simple form, is

called the preterit; as, loved, saw, was.

Ons. 8.—The perfect tense, like the present, is sometimes used with reference to future time; as, "He will be fatigued before he has walked a mile."

Ons. 9.—The pluperfect tense is often used conditionally, without a conjunction; as, "Had I seen you, I should have stopped."

PERSONS AND NUMBERS.

The person and number of a verb, are those modifications in which it agrees with its subject or nominative.

In each number, there are three persons; and in each person, two numbers: thus,

Singular.

Plural.

1st per. I	love,	1st per. We	love,
2d per. The	ou lovest,	2d per. You	
3d per. He		3d per. They	

Obs. 1.—Thus the verb in some of its parts, varies its termination to distinguish, or agree with, the different persons and numbers. The change is, however, principally confined to the second and third persons singular of the present tense of the indicative mood, and to the auxiliaries hast and has of the perfect. In the ancient biblical style, now used only on solemn occasions, the second person singular is distinguished through all the tenses casions, the second person singular is distinguished through all the tenses of the indicative and potential moods. And as the use of the pronoun those is now mostly confined to the solemn style, the terminations of that style are retained in all our examples of the conjugation of verbs. In the plural number, there is no variation of ending, to denote the different persons; and the verb in the three persons plural, is the same as in the first person singular. As the verb is always attended by a noun or a pronoun, expressing the subject of the affirmation, no ambiguity arises from the want of particular terminations in the verb to distinguish the different persons and numbers.

One. 2.—Persons in high stations, being usually surrounded by attendants, it became, many centuries ago, a species of court flattery, to address indi-viduals of this class, in the plural number. And the practice extended, in time, to all ranks of society: so that, at present the customary mode of familiar as well as complimentary address, is altogether plural; both the verb and the pronoun being used in that form. This practice, which confounds one of the most important distinctions of the language, affords a striking instance of the power of fashion. The society of Friends, or Quakers, however, continue to employ the singular number in familiar discourse; and custom, which has now destroyed the compliment of the plural, has placed the appropriate form, (at least as regards them,) on an equality with the plural in point of respect. The singular is universally employed in reference to the Supreme Being; and is generally preferred in poetry. It is the language of Scripture, and is consistently retained in all our grammars.

Ons. 3.—As most of the peculiar terminations by which the second person

Oss. 8.—As most of the peculiar terminations by which the second person singular of verbs is properly distinguished in the solemn style, are not only difficult of utterance, but are quaint and formal in conversation; the preterits and auxiliaries are seldom varied in familiar discourse, and the present is generally simplified by contraction. A distinction between the solemn and the familiar style, has long been admitted, in the pronunciation of the termination ed, and in the ending of the verb in the third person singular; and it is evidently according to good taste and the best usage, to admit such a distinction in the second person singular. In the familiar use of the second person singular, the verb is usually varied only in the present tense of the indicative mood, and in the auxiliary hast of the perfect. This method of varying the verb renders the second person singular analogous to the third, and accords with the practice of the most intelligent of those who retain the common use of this distinctive and consistent mode of address. It disencumbers their familiar dialect of a multitude of harsh and useless terminations, which serve only, when uttered, to give an uncount prominency to words not often emphatic; and, without impairing the strength or perspicuity of the language, increases its harmony, and reduces the form of the verb in the second person singular nearly to the same simplicity as in the other persons and numbers.*

^{*} The writings of the Friends being mostly of a grave east, afford but few examples of their customary mode of forming the verb in connection with the pronoun thos, in familiar discourse. The following may serve to illustrate it; "To devote all thon kad to his service;"—"If thou should come;"—"What thou sould perhaps allow;"—"The Epistle which thou sent me;"—"Thou sould perhaps allow;"—
"If thou submitted;"—"Since thou left;"—"Should thou act;"—"Thou may be ready;"—"That thou had met;"—"That thou had met;"—"Thou may be plundered;"—"That thou had made;"—"I observed thou seus;"—"That thou maght put thy trust;"—"Thou had been at my house."—J. Kendali, "Thou may be plundered;"—"That thou may feel;"—"Though thou soulded long, and sought him;"—"I hope thou woill bear my style;"—"Thou also knowed knows!;—"Thou grow up;"—"I wish thou would yet take my counsel."—S. Crarg. "Thou manifested thy tender regard, stretched forth thy delivering hand, and feel and sustained us."—S. Formescill. The writer has met with thousands that use the second person singular in conversation, but never with one that employed, on ordinary occasions, all the regular endings of the solemn style. The simplification of the second person singular, which, to a greater or less extent, is everywhere adopted by the Friends, and which is here defined and explained, removes from each verb eighteen of these peculiar terminations; and, (if the number of English verbs be, as stated by several grammarians, 8000.) disburdens their familiar dialect of 144,000 of these wakward and useless appendages. This simplification is supported by usage as extensive as the familiar use of the pronoun thou; and is also in accordance with the canons of criticism. "All words and phrases which are remarkably harsh and unharmonious, and not absolutely necessary, should be rejected."—Campbett's Philosophy of Rhetoric, R. II, Chap. it, Sec. 2, Canon Sixth. With the subject of this fote, those who put you for thou, can have no concern; and many may think it unworthy of notice, be

Where the verb is varied, the second person singular is regularly formed by adding st or est to the first person; and the third person singular, in like manner, by adding s or es: as, I see, thou seest, he sees; I give, thou givest, he gives; I go, thou goest, he goes; I fly, thou fliest, he flies; I vex, thou vexest, he vexes; I lose, thou losest, he loses.

Obs. 1.—In the solemn style, (except in Poetry, which usually contracts* these forms,) the second person singular of the present indicative, and that of the irregular preterits,† commonly end in est, pronounced as a separate

"Writers generally have recourse to this mode of expression, that they may avoid hard terminations."—Irving's El. Eng. Composition, p. 12. But if writers of good authority, such as Pope, Swift, and Pollok, have sometimes had recourse to this method of simplifying the verb even in the soleum style, the elision may, with tenfold stronger reason, be admitted in familiar writing or discourse, on the authority of general custom among those who choose to employ the pronoun thou in conversation. Some of the Friends (perhaps from an idea that it is less formal) misempley thee for thos, and often join it to the third person of the verb in stead of the second. Such expressions as, thee does, thee is, thee has, thee thinks, &c., are double solections; they set all grammar at defiance. Many persons who are not ignorant of grammar, and who employ the pronoun aright, sometimes improperly sacrifice concord to a slight improvement in sound, and give to the verb the ending of the third person, for that of the second. Three instances of this occur in the examples quoted in the preceding paragraph. See also the following, and many more, in the works of the poet Burns; of the second. Three instances of this occur in the examples quoted in the preceding paragraph. See also the following, and many more, in the works of the poet Burns; who says of himself, "Though it cost the schoolmaster some thrashings, I made an excellent English scholar; and, by the time I was ten or cleven years of age, I was a critic in substantives, eerbs, and particles:"—"But when thou pours;"—"There thou shinese chief;"—"Thou cetaers the head;"—"Thou strings the nerves;"—"Thou brightens black despair;"—"Thou comes;"—"Thou travels far;"—"Thou paints;"—"Unseen thou lurks;"—"O thou pale orb that silent shines." This mode of simplifying the verb confounds the persons; and as it has little advantage in sound, over the regular contracted form of the second person, it ought to be avoided. It is too frequently used by the poets.

regular contracted form of the second person, it ought to be avoided. It is too frequently used by the poets.

* The second person singular may be contracted, whenever the verb ends in a sound which will unite with that of st. The poets generally employ the contracted forms, but they seem not to have adopted a uniform and consistent method of writing them. Some insert the apostrophe, and, after a single vowel, double the final consonant before st; as, holdest, bidest, eadiest, leadiest, mayst, mightest, &c. cothers add st only, and form permanent contractions; as, holdest, bidest, saidest, leadest, mayster, saidest, leadest, mayster, situation of certain words, and suppress a preceding one; as, quick-nest, happinest, scatterest, slumbireats; others contract the termination of such words, and insert the spostrophe; as, quick-nest, happinest, scatterest, slumbireats; and pronunciation of it, incline us to contract even all our regular verbs; so accept and pronunciation of it, incline us to contract even all our regular verbs; so as to avoid, if possible, an increase of syllables in the inflection of them. Accordingly, accent and pronunciation of it, incline us to contract even all our regular verbs; so as to avoid, if possible, an increase of syllables in the inflection of them. Accordingly, several terminations which formerly constituted distinct syllables, have been either wholly dropped, or blended with the final syllables of the verbs to which they are added. Thus the plural termination en has become entirely obsolet; it or eth is no longer in common use; et is contracted in pronunciation; the ancient ye or is, of the third person singular, is changed to so re, and is unsuly added without increase of syllables; and st or est has, in part, adopted the analogy. So that the proper mode of forming these contractions of the second person singular, seems to be, to add st only, and to insort the apostrophe, when a vowel is suppressed from the verb to which this termination is added; as, thinkst, sayst, bidst, lov'st, lov dst, slumberst, shumber'dst.

ber'dst.
† Some grammarians say, that, whenever the preterit is like the present, it should take edst for the second person singular. This rule gives us such words as cost-edst, cost-edst, bid-dedst, burst-edst, cut-tedst, hit-tedst, tet-tedst, put-tedst, hurt-edst, rid-dedst, shed-dedst, dec. The few examples which may be adduced from ancient writings, in suppor of this rule, are undoubtedly formed in the usual manner from regular preterits now obsolete; and if this were not the case, no person of taste could think of employing derivatives so uncouth. Dr. Johnson has justly remarked, that "the chief defect of our language is ruggedness and asperity." And this defect is peculiarly obvious, when even the regular termination of the second person singular is added to our preterits. Accordingly we find numerous instances among the poots, both ancient and modern, in which that termination is omitted.—[See Percy's Reliques of Ancient Poctry corrychere.

syllable. But as the termination ed, in solemn discourse, constitutes a syllable, the regular preterits form the second person singular, by adding st, without further increase of syllables; as, loved, lovedst—not lovedest. Dost and hast, and the irregular preterits wast, didet, and hadst, are permanently contracted. The auxiliaries shall and will, change the final l to t. To the auxiliaries may, can, might, could, would, and should, the termination est was formerly added; but they are now generally written with st only, and pronounced as monosyllables, even in solemn discourse.

Obs. 2.—The third person singular was anciently formed by adding th to verbs ending in e, and eth to all others. This method of forming the third person singular, almost always adds a syllable to the verb. It is now confined to the solemn style, and is little used. Doth, hath, and saith, are contractions of verbs thus formed. syllable. But as the termination ed, in solemn discourse, constitutes a syl-

tractions of verbs thus formed.

Obs. 3.—When the second person singular is employed in familiar discourse, it is usually formed in a manner strictly analogous to that which is now adopted in the third person singular. When the verb ends in a sound which will units with that of the results have according to the results and person singular. which will unite with that of et or e, the second person singular is formed by adding et only, and the third, by adding e only; and the number of syllables is not increased: as, I read, thou readet, he reads; I know, thou knowsh, he knows; I take, thou takest, he takes. For when the verb ends in mute e, no termination renders this e vocal in the familiar style, if a synæresis can take place.

Oss. 4.—But when the verb ends in a sound which will not unite with that of st or s, st and s are added to final s, and sst and ss to other terminations; and the verb acquires an additional syllable: as, I trace, thou tracest, he traces; I pass, thou passest, he passes; I fix, thou fixest, he fixes. But verbs ending is o or y preceded by a consonant, do not exactly follow this rule: in these, y is changed into i; and to both o and i, est and es are added without increase of syllables: as, I go, thou goest, he goes; I undo, thou undoest, he undoes; I fly, thou fliest, he flies; I pity, thou pitiest, he pities.

Ons. 5.—The formation of the third person singular of verbs, is precisely

Obs. 6.—The formation of the tind person singular of velos, is precisely the same as that of the plural number of nouns.

Obs. 6.—The auxiliaries do, doet, does, [pronounced doo, dust, dus,]—am, art, is,—have, hast, has,—being also in frequent use as principal verbs of the present tense, retain their peculiar form when joined to other verbs. The other auxiliaries are not varied, except in the solemn style.

Obs. 7.—The only regular terminations that are added to verbs, are ing, do not all versors are the laws and the or set laws and the rest all plus and the rest al

or ed, st or est, s or es, th or eth. Ing, and th or eth, always add a syllable to the verb; except in doth, hath, saith. The rest, whenever their sound will unite with that of the final syllable of the verb, are added without increasing the number of syllables; otherwise, they are separately pronounced. In solemn discourse, however, ed and est are, by most speakers, uttered distinctly in all cases; except sometimes, when a vowel precedes.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

The conjugation of a verb is a regular arrangement of its moods, tenses, persons, numbers, and participles.

Obs.—The moods and tenses are formed partly by inflections, or changes made in the verb itself, and partly by the combination of the verb or its participle, with a few short verbs called auxiliaries, or helping verbs.

There are four Principal Parts in the conjugation of every simple and complete verb; namely, the Present, the Preterit, the Imperfect Participle, and the Perfect Par-

^{*} The second person singular of the simple verb do, is now usually written dost, and read dust; being contracted in orthography, as well as pronunciation. And perhaps the compounds may follow; as, Thou undost, outdost, insidest, operdost, &c. But exceptions to exceptions are puzzling, even when they conform to the general

ticiple. A verb which wants any of these parts is called defective: such are most of the auxiliaries.

Obs.—The present is radically the same in all the moods, and is the part from which all the rest are formed. The present infinitive is the root, or simplest form, of the verb. The preterit and the perfect participle are regularly formed by adding d or ed, and the imperfect participle by adding ing, to the present.

An auxiliary is a short verb prefixed to one of the principal parts of an other verb, to express some particular mode and time of the being, action, or passion. auxiliaries are do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, and must, with their variations.

Obs. 1.—Do, be, and have, being also principal verbs, are complete: but the participles of do and have, are not used as auxiliaries; unless having, which forms the compound participle, may be considered as such. The other auxiliaries have no participles.

Obs. 2.—English verbs are principally conjugated by means of auxiliaries; the only tenses which can be formed by the simple verb, being the present and the imperfect; as, I love, I loved. And even here an auxiliary is usually preferred in questions and negations; as, Do you love? You do not love. All the other tenses, even in their simplest form, are compounds.

Obs. 3.—The form of conjugating the active verb is often called the Active Voice; and that of the passive verb, the Passive Voice. These terms are borrowed from the Latin and Greek grammars, and are of little or no use in English.

English.

Oss. 4.—English verbs having few inflections, it is convenient to insert in the conjugations the preposition to, to mark the infinitive; pronouns, to distinguish the persons and numbers; the conjunction if, to denote the subjunctive; and the adverb not, to show the form of negation. With these

additions, a verb may be conjugated in four ways:

1. Affirmatively; as, I write, I do write, or I am writing.

2. Negatively; as, I write not, I do not write, or, I am not writing.

3. Interrogatively; as, Write I Do I write or, Am I writing?

4. Interrogatively and negatively; as, Write I not? Do I not write? or, Am

I. SIMPLE FORM, ACTIVE OR NEUTER.

The simplest form of an English conjugation, is that which makes the present and imperfect tenses without auxiliaries; but, even in these, auxiliaries are required for the potential mood, and are often preferred for the indicative.

FIRST EXAMPLE.

The regular active verb LOVE, conjugated affirmatively. Principal Parts.

Preterit. Imper. Participle. Perfect Participle. Present. Loving. Loved. Love. Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

The infinitive mood is that form of the verb, which expresses the being,

action, or passion, in an unlimited manner, and without person or number. It is used only in the present and perfect tenses.

Present Tense.

This tense is the *root*, or *radical verb*; and is usually preceded by the preposition *to*, which shows its relation to some other word: thus,—

To love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary have to the perfect participle, and is usually preceded by the preposition to: thus,-

To have loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

The indicative mood is that form of the verb, which simply indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question. It is used in all the tenses.

Present Tense.

The present indicative, in its simple form, is essentially the same as the present infinitive, or radical verb; except that the verb be has am in the indicative.

1. The simple form of the present tense is varied thus:

Singu	Plural.				
1st per. I				We	
2d per. Thou				You	
3d per. He	loves;	3d 1	per.	They	love.

2. This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary do to the verb; thus,-

Singular.	Plural.		
 I do love, Thou dost love, 	1. We do love, 2. You do love,		
3. He does love;	3. They do love.		

Imperfect Tense.

This tense, in its simple form, is the *preterit*; which, in all regular verbs, adds d or ed to the present, but in others is formed variously.

1. The simple form of the imperfect tense is varied thus:—

_ •		-	gular.			Plu	ral.	
	2.	I Thou	loved, lovedst,	·	2.	You	loved,	
	This	tense	loved; may also	be formed		•	loved. g the auxiliary	

did to the present: thus,-

	S	ingul	ar.		\boldsymbol{P}	lur	al.	
1.	I	did	love,	1.	W	э .	did	love,
2.	Thou	didst	love,	2.	Yo	u	did	love,
3.	He	did	love;	3.	The	ey ·	did	love.

Obs.—In a familiar question or negation, the auxiliary form is preferable to the simple. But in the solemn or the poetic style, the simple form is more dignified and graceful: as, "Understandest thou what thou readest?"—"Of whom speaketh the prophet this?"—Acts, viii, 30, 34. "Say, heard ye nought of lowland war?"—Scott: L. of L., C. v, ¶ 5.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary have to the perfect participle: thus .-

Singular.

Plural.

- have loved.
- 1. We have loved, 2. You have loved,
- 2. Thou hast loved,
- 3. He has loved;
- 3. They have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary had to the perfect participle: thus,-

Singular.

Plural.

- had loved.
- 1. We had loved,
- 2. Thou hadst loved, 3. He had loved;
- 2. You had loved. 3. They had loved.
- First-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary shall or will to the present: thus,-

1. Simply to express a future action or event:—

Singular.

Plural.

- shall love.
- 1. We shall love.
- 2. Thou wilt love,
- 2. You will love,
- 3. He will love;
- 3. They will love.

2. To express a promise, volition, command, or threat:—

Singular.

Plural.

- will love,
- 1. We will love.
- 2. Thou shalt love, 3. He shall love;
- 2. You shall love, 3. They shall love.

Oss.—In interrogative sentences, the meaning of these auxiliaries is reversed. When preceded by a conjunction implying condition or uncertainty, their import is somewhat varied.

Second-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries shall have or will have to the perfect participle: thus,-

Singular.

Plural.

- shall have loved.
- 1. We shall have loved,
- 2. Thou wilt have loved, will have loved;
- 2. You will have loved, 3. They will have loved.

Oss.—The auxiliary shall may also be used in the second and third persons of this tense, when preceded by a conjunction expressing condition or contingency; as, "If he shall have finished his work when I return." And perhaps will may here be used in the first person to express a promise or a determination, though such usage, I think, very seldom occurs.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The potential mood is that form of the verb, which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity, of the being, action, or passion. It is used in the first four tenses; but the potential imperfect is properly an acrist, and not necessarily a past tense. No definite time is usually implied in it.

Present Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary may, can, or must, to the radical verb:

	Singu	lar.	Plu	ral.
1.	I may	love,	1. We	may love,
2.	Thou may	st love,	2. You	may love,
3.	He may	love;	3. They	may love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary might, could, would, or should, to the radical verb: thus,-

Singular.	•		I	Plural.
 I might Thou mightst He might 	love,	2.	You	might love, might love, might love.
	Donfoot	Tomas		

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries, may have, can have, or must have, to the perfect participle: thus,-

•	- Singular.			Plur	al.
1. I	may	have loved,	1. W	e may	have loved,
2. T	hou mayst	have loved,	2. You	u may	have loved,
3. H	le may	have loved;	3. The	ey may	have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries, might have, could have, would have, or should have, to the perfect participle: thus,—

Sing	rular.	P	lural.
 I might Thou mightst He might 	have loved, have loved;	2. You 1	might have loved, might have loved, might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The subjunctive mood is that form of the verb, which represents the being, action, or passion, as conditional, doubtful, or contingent. This mood is generally preceded by a conjunction; as, if, that, though, lest, unless, &c. It does not vary its termination, in the different persons. It is used in the present, and sometimes in the imperfect tense; rarely in any other. As this mood can be used only in a dependent clause, the time implied in its tenses is always relative, and generally indefinite.

Present Tense.

This tense is generally used to express some condition on which a future action or event is affirmed. It is therefore considered by some grammarians, as an elliptical form of the future.

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Plural. Singular. 1. If I love, 1. If we love, 2. If you love, 2. If thou love, 3. If he 3. If they love.

Obs.—In this tense the auxiliary do is sometimes employed; as, "If thou do prosper my way."—Gen., xxiv, 42. "If he do not utier it."—Lev., v, 1. This uninflected do proves the tense to be present and the mood subjunctive; for the word will come under no other mood or tense.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense, as well as the imperfect of the potential mood, with which it is frequently connected, is properly an acrist, or indefinite tense; and it may refer to time past, present, or future: as, "If therefore perfection were by the Levitical priesthood, what further need was there," &c.—Heb., vii, 11. "If the whole body were an eye, where were the hearing f"—1 Cor., xii, 17. "If it were possible, they shall deceive the very elect."—Matt., xxiv, 24.

Singular.	Plural.
 If I loved, If thou loved, If he loved; 	 If we loved, If you loved, If they loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The imperative mood is that form of the verb, which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting. It is commonly used only in the second person of the present tense.

. Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Love [thou,] or Do thou love; Plural. 2. Love [ye or you,] or Do you love.

Obs.—In the Greek language, which has three numbers, the imperative mood is used in the second and third persons of them all; and has also several different tenses, some of which cannot be clearly rendered in English. In Latin, this mood has a distinct form for the third person both singular and plural. In Italian, Spanish, and French, the first person plural is also given it. Imitations of some of these forms are occasionally employed in English, particularly by the poets. Such imitations must be referred to this mood, unless by ellipsis and transposition we make them out to be something else. The following are examples: "Blessed be he that blesseth thee."—Gen., xxvii, "Fall he that must, beneath his rival's arms, And live the rest, secure of future harms."—Pope.

"My soul, turn from them—turn we to survey," &c.—Goldsmith.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect. 2. The Perfect. 3. The Preperfect. Having loved. Loving. Loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST EXAMPLE.

First Person Singular.

IND. I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved. Por. I may love, I might love, I may have loved, I might have loved. Subj. If I love, If I loved.

Second Person Singular.

IND. Thou lovest, Thou lovedst, Thou hast loved, Thou hadst loved, Thou wilt love, Thou wilt have loved. Por. Thou mayst love, Thou mightst love, Thou mayst have loved, Thou mightst have loved. Subj. If thou love, If thou loved. IMP. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

Third Person Singular.

IND. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He will love, He will have loved. Por. He may love, He might love, He may have loved, He might have loved. Subj. If he love, If he loved.

First Person Plural.

IND. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We shall love, We shall have loved. Por. We may love, We might love, We may have loved, We might have loved. Subj. If we love, If we loved.

Second Person Plural.

IND. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, You will love, You will have loved. Por. You may love, You might love, You may have loved, You might have loved. Subj. If you love, If you loved. IMP. Love [ye or you,] or Do you love.

Third Person Plural.

IND. They love, They loved, They have loved, They had loved, They will love, They will have loved. Por. They may love, They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. Subj. If they love, If they loved.

OBS.—In the familiar style, the second person singular of this verb, is usually formed thus: IND. Thou lovist, Thou loved, Thou hast loved, Thou had loved, Thou will love, Thou will have loved. Por. Thou may love, Thou might love, Thou may have loved, Thou might have loved. Subj. If thou love, If thou loved. IMP. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

SECOND EXAMPLE.

· The irregular active verb SEE, conjugated affirmatively.

Principal Parts.

Present. Preterit. Imp. Participle. Perf. Participle.
See. Saw. Seeing. Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

To see.

Perfect Tense.

To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tones

Present	t Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees;	3. They see.
Imperfe	ct Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
1. I saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He saw;	3. They saw.
Perfect	
Singular.	Plural.
1. I have seen,	1. We have seen,
2. Thou hast seen,	2. You have seen,
3. He has seen;	3. They have seen.
Pluperfe	ct Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
. I had seen,	1. We had seen,
101	0. 37. 1. 1

		-	
ı.	I	had	seen,

- 2. Thou hadst seen, 3. He had seen;

- You had seen,
 They had seen.

First-future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- shall see, 1. I
- 1. We shall see, 2. You will see,
- 2. Thou wilt see, 3. He will see;
- 3. They will see.
- Second-future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- shall have seen,
- We shall have seen,
 You will have seen,
- 2. Thou wilt have seen, 3. He will have seen;
- 3. They will have seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. may see, Plural.

- 1. I 2. Thou mayst see,
- 1. We may see. 2. You may see,
- 3. He may see;
- 3. They may see.

Imperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. might see, 1. We might see, 2. You might see, 2. Thou mightst see, 3. He might see; 3. They might see. Perfect Tense. Singular. Plural. We may have seen, You may have seen, may have seen, 2. Thou mayst have seen, 3. They may have seen. 3. He may have seen; Pluperfect Tense. Plural. Singular. We might have seen, You might have seen, might have seen, 2. Thou mightst have seen, 3. They might have seen. . 3. He might have seen; SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. Present Tense. Singular. Pural. 1. If I 1. If we see, see. 2. If thou see, 2. If you see, 3. If he 3. If they see. see; Imperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. 1. If I 1. If we saw, 2. If thou saw, 2. If you saw, 3. If they saw. 3. If he saw; IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. See [thou,] or Do thou see; Plural. 2. See [ye or you,] or Do you see.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect. 2. The Perfect. 3. The Preperfect. Seen. Seeing. Having seen.

Oss.—In the familiar style, the second person singular of this verb, is usually formed thus: Ind. Thou seest, Thou saw, Thou hast seen, Thou had seen, Thou will see, Thou will have seen. Por. Thou may see, Thou might have seen. Subj. If thou see, If thou saw. IMP. See [thou,] or Do thou see.

THIRD EXAMPLE.

The irregular neuter verb BE, conjugated affirmatively.

Principal Parts.

Present. Preterit. Imp. Participle. Perf. Participle.
Be. Was. Being. Been.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

To be.

Perfect Tense.

. To have been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Obs.—Be was formerly used in the indicative present: as, "We be twelve brethren."—Gen., xlii, 32. "What be these two olive branches?"—Zech., iv, 12. But this construction is now obsolete.

Singular.	Plural.		
1. I am,	1. We are,		
2. Thou art,	2. You are,		
3. He is;	3. They are.		
Imperfect .	Tense.		
Singular.	Plural.		
1. I was,	1. We were,		
2. Thou wast,*	2. You were,		
3. He was;	3. They were.		
Perfect T	'ense.		
Singular.	Plural.		
1. I have been,	1. We have been,		
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,		
3. He has been;	3. They have been.		
Pluperfect Tense.			
Singular.	Plural.		
1. I had been,	1. We had been,		
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,		
3. He had been;	3. They had been.		

^{*} Wert is sometimes used indicatively for wost; as,
"Vainly wert thou wed."—Byron,
"Whate'er thou art or wert."—Id.

84 INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [PART L First-future Tense. Plural. Singular. shall be, 1. We shall be, 2. Thou wilt be, 2. You will be, 3. He will be; 3. They will be. Second-future Tense. Plural. Singular. shall have been, 1. We shall have been, 2. Thou wilt have been, 3. He will have been; 2. You will have been, 3. They will have been. POTENTIAL MOOD. Present Tense. Singular. Plural. 1. We may be, 2. You may be, may be, 2. Thou mayst be, 3. He may be; 3. They may be. Imperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. 1. I might be, 1. We might be, You might be, They might be. 2. Thou mightst be, 3. He might be; Perfect Tense. Plural. Singular. 1. We may have been. may have been, 2. Thou mayst have been, 2. You may have been, 3. He may have been; 3. They may have been. Pluperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. 1. We might have been, 2. You might have been, might have been, 2. Thou mightst have been, 3. He might have been; 3. They might have been. SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. Present Tense. Plural. Singular. 1. If I be, 1. If we be, 2. If thou be. 2. If you be. 3. If he be; 8. If they be.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. If I were.

L. Plural. 1. If we were,

2. If thou wert, or were,

2. If you were,

3. If he were: 3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou,] or Do thou be: Plural. 2. Be [ye or you,] or Do you be.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect. 2. The Perfect. Being. Been.

3. The Preperfect, Having been.

One.—In the familiar style, the second person singular of this verb is usually formed thus: I.RD. Thou art, Thou was, Thou hast been, Thou had been, Thou will be, Thou will have been. Por. Thou may be, Thou might be, Thou may have been, Thou might have been. Suzz. If thou be, If thou were. IMP. Be [thou,] or Do thou be.

II. COMPOUND FORM, ACTIVE QR NEUTER.

Active and neuter verbs may also be conjugated, by adding the Imperfect Participle to the auxiliary verb BE. through all its changes; as, I am writing—He is sitting. This form of the verb denotes a continuance* of the action or the state of being, and is, on many occasions, preferable to the simple form of the verb.

One.—Verbs of this form have sometimes a passive signification; as, "The books are now selling,"—Allen's Gram., p. 82. "It requires no motion in the organs whilst it is forming,"—Murray's Gram., p. 8. "While the work of the temple was carrying on."—Dr. J. Oven. "The designs of Providence are carrying on."—Bp. Butler. "We are permitted to know nothing of what is transacting in the regions above us."—Dr. Blair. Expressions of this kind are condemned by some critics; but the usage is unquestionably of far better authority, and (according to my apprehension) in far better taste, than the more complex phraseology which some late writers adopt in its stead; as, "The books are now being sold."

FOURTH EXAMPLE.

The irregular active verb READ, conjugated affirmatively in the Compound Form.

Principal Parts of the Simple Verb.

Imp. Participle. Perf. Participle. Present. Preterit. Reading. Read. Read. Read.

^{*}Those verbs which, in their simple form, imply continuance, do not admit the compound form; thus we say, "I respect him;" but not, "I can respecting him."

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

To be reading.

Perfect Tense.

To have been reading.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. I am reading, 1. We are reading. 2. You are reading,
- 2. Thou art reading, 3. He is reading;
- 3. They are reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- was reading,
- 1. We were reading, 2. You were reading,
- 2. Thou wast reading, 3. He was reading;
- 3. They were reading.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- have been reading,
- We have been reading,
 You have been reading,
- 2. Thou hast been reading, 3. He has been reading;
- 3. They have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- had been reading,
- 1. We had been reading, 2. You had been reading,
- Thou hadst been reading,
 He had been reading;
- 3. They had been reading.

First-future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- shall be reading, 2. Thou wilt be reading,
- We shall be reading,
 You will be reading,
- 3. He will be reading;
- 3. They will be reading.

Second-future Tense.

- Singular. 1. I shall have been reading,
 - 2. Thou wilt have been reading,
 - 3. He will have been reading;

Plural.

- 1. We shall have been reading,
- 2. You will have been reading,
- 3. They will have been reading.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense

Present Tense.			
Singular.	Plural.		
1. I may be reading,	1. We may be reading,		
2. Thou mayst be reading,	2. You may be reading,		
3. He may be reading;	3. They may be reading.		
Imperfect 2			
Singular.	Plural.		
1. I might be reading,	 We might be reading, You might be reading, 		
2. Thou mightst be reading,	2. You might be reading,		
3. He might be reading;	3. They might be reading.		
Perfect T	ense.		
Singular. 1. I may ha	ve been reading,		
2. Thou mayst ha	ve been reading,		
3. He may ha			
Plural. 1. We may have 2. You may have	e been reading,		
2. Iou may nave	e been reading,		
3. They may have	•		
Pluperfect			
	ave been reading,		
2. Thou mightst have been reading,			
_	nave been reading;		
Plural. 1. We might have been reading, 2. You might have been reading,			
3. They might ha	ve been reading, ve been reading		
3. They might have been reading.			
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.			
Present Tense.			
Singular.	Plural.		
1. If I be reading,	1. If we be reading,		
2. If thou be reading,	2. If you be reading,		
3. If he be reading;	3. If they be reading.		
Imperfect			
Singular.	Plural.		
1. If I were reading,	1. If we were reading,		
2. If thou wert reading,	2. If you were reading,		
3. If he were reading;	3. If they were reading.		

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. 2. Be [thou] reading, or Do thou be reading; Plur. 2. Be [ye or you] reading, or Do you be reading.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect.

2. The Perfect.

3. The Preperfect.

Being reading.

Having been reading.

One.—In the familiar style, the second person singular of this verb, is usually formed thus: Ind. Thou art reading, Thou was reading, Thou hast been reading, Thou had been reading, Thou will be reading, Thou will have been reading. Por. Thou may be reading, Thou might be reading, Thou may have been reading, Thou might have been reading. Surs. If thou be reading, If thou were reading. Imp. Be [thou] reading, or Do thou be reading.

III. FORM OF PASSIVE VERBS.

Passive verbs, in English, are always of a compound form: being made from active-transitive verbs, by adding the Perfect Participle to the auxiliary verb BE, through all its changes: thus, from the active-transitive verb love, is formed the passive verb be loved.

One. 1.—A few active-intransitive verbs, that merely imply motion, or change of condition, may be put into this form, with a neuter signification; making not passive but neuter verbs, which express nothing more than the state which results from the change: as, I am come; He is risen; They are fallen. Our ancient writers, after the manner of the French, very frequently yauen. Our ancient writers, after the manner of the French, very frequently employed this mode of conjugation in a neuter sense; but, with a few expections, present usage is clearly in favour of the auxiliary have in preference to be, whenever the verb formed with the perfect participle is not passive; as, They have arrived—not, They are arrived.

Oss. 2.—Passive verbs may be distinguished from neuter verbs of the same form, by a reference to the agent or instrument; which frequently is, and always may be, expressed after passive verbs; but which never is, and never can be, expressed after neuter verbs: as, "The thief has been caught by the officer."—"Pens are made with a knife."

FIFTH EXAMPLE.

The regular passive verb BE LOVED, conjugated affirmatively, Principal Parts of the Active Verb.

Present. Love.

Preterit. Imper. Participle. Perfect Participle. Loved.

Loving.

Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

To be loved.

Perfect Tense.

To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- am loved.
- 2. Thou art loved,
- 3. He is loved:
- 1. We are loved,
- 2. You are loved, 3. They are loved.

Imperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. 1. We were loved, 2. You were loved, was loved, 2. Thou wast loved, 3. They were loved. 3. He was loved; Perfect Tense. Singular. Plural. 1. We have been loved, have been loved, 2. You have been loved, 2. Thou hast been loved, 3. They have been loved. 3. He has been loved; Pluperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. We had been loved, You had been loved, been loved, had Thou hadst been loved, He had been loved; You had been loved, They had been loved. First-future Tense. Singular. Plural. shall be loved, We shall be loved, You will be loved, 2. Thou wilt be loved, 3. They will be loved. 3. He will be loved; Second-future Tense. Singular. 1. I shall have been loved. 2. Thou wilt have been loved, 3. He will have been loved; Plural. 1. We shall have been loved, 2. You will have been loved, 3. They will have been loved. POTENTIAL MOOD. Present Tense. Plural, Singular. 1. We may be loved, 2. You may be loved, may be loved, 2. Thou mayst be loved, 3. He may be loved; 3. They may be loved. Imperfect Tense. Plural. Singular. 1. We might be loved, might be loved, 2. Thou mightst be loved, 2. You might be loved, 3. He might be loved; 3. They might be loved.

Perfect Tense.

- may have been loved, Singular, 1. I
 - 2. Thou mayst have been loved,
 - 3. He may have been loved:
- 1. We may have been loved. Plural.
 - 2. You may have been loved, 3. They may have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

- might have been loved, Singular, 1, I
 - 2. Thou mightst have been loved,
 - 3. He might have been loved;
- Plural 1. We might have been loved.
 - 2. You might have been loved,
 - 3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

- Plural.
- 1. If I be loved. 1. If we be loved.
- 2. If thou be loved, 2. If you be loved, 3. If he be loved; 3. If they be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. If I were loved. 1. If we were loved,
- 2. If thou wert loved, 2. If you were loved. 3. If they were loved.
- 3. If he were loved;

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou] loved, or Do thou be loved; Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] loved, or Do you be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect. 2. The Perfect. 3. The Preperfect. Being loved. Loved. Having been loved.

Oss.—In the familiar style, the second person singular of this verb, is usually formed thus: Inc. Thou art loved, Thou was loved, Thou hast been loved, Thou had been loved, Thou will be loved, Thou will have been loved. For. Thou may be loved, Thou might be loved, Thou may have been loved, Thou might have been loved. Suss. If thou be loved, If thou were loved. IMP. Be [thou] loved, or Do thou be loved.

IV. FORM OF NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated negatively, by placing the adverb

not after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the infinitive and participles take the negative first: as,

INF. Not to love, Not to have loved. Ind. I love not, or I do not love, I loved not, or I did not love, I have not loved, I had not loved, I shall not love, I shall not have loved. . Por. I may, can, * or must not love; I might, could, would, or should not love; I may, can, or must not have loved; I might, could, would, or should not have loved. Subj. If I love not. If I loved not. Part. Not loving, Not loved, Not having loved.

V. FORM OF QUESTION.

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative after it, or after the first auxiliary: as,

IND. Do I love? Did I love? Have I loved? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved? Por. May, can, or must I love? Might, could, would, or should I love? May, can, or must I have loved? Might, could, would, or should I have loved?

VI. FORM OF QUESTION WITH NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated interrogatively and negatively, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative and the adverb not after the verb, or after the first auxiliary: as,

IND. Do I not love? Did I not love? Have I not loved? Had I not loved? Shall I not love? Shall I not have loved? Por. May, can, or must I not love? Might, could, would, or should I not love? May, can, or must I not have loved? Might, could, would, or should I not have loved?

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An irregular verb is a verb that does not form the preterit and perfect participle by assuming d or ed; as, see, saw, seeing, seen.

Oss. 1.—When the verb ends in a sharp consonant, t is sometimes improperly substituted for ed, making the preterit and the perfect participle irregular in spelling, when they are not so in sound: as, distrest for distressed, tost for tossed, mixt for mixed, crackt for cracked.

Oss. 2.—When the verb ends with a smooth consonant, the substitution of t for ed produces an irregularity in sound, as well as in writing. In some

[•] When power is denied, can and not are united to prevent ambiguity; as, "I cannot go." But when the power is affirmed, and something else is denied, the words are written separately; as, "The Christian apologist can not merely expose the utter baseness of the infidel assertion, but he has positive ground for erecting an opposite and confrosting assertion in its place."—Dr. Chalmers.

such irregularities, the poets are indulged for the sake of rhyme; but the best speakers and writers of prose prefer the regular form wherever good use has sanctioned it: thus, learned is better than learnt; burned, than burnt; penned, than pent; absorbed, than absorpt; spelled, than spelt; smelled, than smelt; though both forms are allowable.

Ons. 3.—Several of the irregular verbs are variously used by the best authors; and many preterits and participles which were formerly in good use,

are now obsolete, or becoming so.

Oss. 4.—The simple irregular verbs are about 110 in number, and are nearly all monosyllables. They are derived from the Saxon, in which lan-

nearly all monosyllables. They are derived from the Saxon, in which language they are also, for the most part, irregular.

Oss. 5.—The following alphabetical list exhibits the simple irregular verbs, as they are now generally used. In this list, and also in that of the redundant verbs, those preterits and participles which are supposed to be preferable, and best supported by authorities, are placed first. Nearly all compounds that follow the form of their simple verbs, or derivatives that follow their primitives, are purposely omitted from both tables. Welcome and baze, are always regular, and therefore belong not to either list. Some words which are obsolete, have also been omitted, that the learner might not mistake them for words in present use. Some of those which are placed last, are now little used. which are placed last, are now little used.

LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

Present.	Preterit.	Imp. Participle.	Perfect Participle.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arisen.
Be,	was,	being,	been
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing,	borne or born.*
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten or beat.
Begin,	began or begun,	beginning,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding,	beheld.
Beset,	beset,	besetting,	beset.
Bestead,	bestead,	besteading,	bestead.
Bid,	bid or bade,	bidding,	bidden or bid.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten or bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden or chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,‡	cleft or clove,	cleaving,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.

Borne signifies carried; born signifies brought forth.

^{*} Borne signines currieu; own signines orwaym juras.

† "And they shall pass through it, hardly bestead, and hungry."—Isaiah, viii, 21.

‡ Cleave to split, is irregular as above; eleave, to stick, is regular, but eleave was formerly used in the preterit, for eleaved.

	Present.	Preterit.	Imp. Participle.	Perfect Participle.
	Do,	did,	doing,	done.
	Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
	Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
	Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk or drank.
〉	Eat,	ate or čat,	eating,	eaten or eat.
	Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
	Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
	Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt. ·
	Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.
_	Find.	found,	finding,	found.
_	Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
	Fling.	flung,	flinging,	flung.
	Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
_	Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
E	rorsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
	Get,	got,	getting,	got or gotten.
	Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
	Go,	went,	going,	gone.
_	Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
1	Have,	had,	having,	had.
	mear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
	Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden or hid.
	Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit,
	Hold,	held,	holding,	held or holden.*
	Hurt,	hurt,†	. 01	hurt.
	Keep,	kept,‡	keeping,	kept.
	Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
	Lead,	led,		led.
]	Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
	Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
	Let,	let,		let.
	Lie, (to rest,)	lay,		lain.
	Lose,	lost,		lost.
	Make,	made,		made.
	Meet,	met,		met.
	Put,	put,	putting,	put.
	Read,	rĕad,	reading,	rĕad.
	Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.§

^{* &}quot;Holden is not in general use; and is chiefly employed by attorneys."—Grombia, p. 196. Wells marks this word as "obsolescent."—School Gram., p. 108. L. Marray rejected it; but Lowth gave it alone, as a participle, and held only as a preterit.

† "I have been found guilty of killing cats I never hurted."—Rederick Random.

‡ "They keeped aloof as they passed her bye."—J. Hogg, Pilgrims of the Sun, p. 19.

§ Perhaps there is authority sufficient to place the verb rend among those which are redundant. See, in the Grammar of English Grammars, four examples of the regular form, "rended."

Present.		Imp. Participle.	Perfect Participle.
-Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
-Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden or rode.
-Ring,	rung or rang,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
-Run,	ran or run,	running,	run.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.*
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk or shrank,		shrunk or shrunken.
Sing,	sung or sang,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sunk or sank,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk <i>or</i> slank,	slinking,	slunk.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten or smit.
Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit or spat,	spitting,	spit or spitten.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung or sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stink,	stunk or stank	stinking,	stunk.
Stride,	strode or strid,	striding,	stridden or strid.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck or stricken.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.

^{* &}quot;Shoe, shoed or shod, shoeing, shoed or shod."—Old Gram., by W. Ward, p. 64; and Fowle's True English Gram., p. 46.

[†] The verb stride, and its derivative bestride, each of which is used in two irregular forms, show also tendency to become redundant. "He will find the political hobby which he has bestrided no child's nag."—The Vanguard, a Newspaper.

[&]quot;Through the pressed nostril spectacle-bestrid."—Comper.
"A lank haired hunter strided."—Whittier's Subbath Scene.

Present.	Preterit.	Imp. Participle.	Perfect Participle.
Swim,	swum or swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung or swang,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
\mathbf{T} ell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden or trod.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.*

REDUNDANT VERBS.

A redundant verb is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, thrive, thrived or throve, thriving, thrived or thriven. Of this class of verbs, there are about ninety-five, beside sundry derivatives and compounds.

OBS. 1.—Those irregular verbs which have more than one form for the preterit or for the perfect participle, are in some sense redundant; but, as there is no occasion to make a distinct class of such as have double forms that are never regular, these redundancies are either included in the preceding list of never regular, these redundancies are either included in the preceding list of the simple irregular verbs, or omitted as being improper to be now recognized for good English. A few old preterits or participles may perhaps be accounted good English in the solemn style, which are not so in the familiar: as, "And none epake a word unto him."—Job, ii, 13. "When I brake the five loaves."—Mark, viii, 19. "Serve me till I have eaten and drunken."—Luke, xvii, 8. "It was not possible that he should be holden of it."—Acts, ii, 24. "Thou castedet them down into destruction."—Psalms, 1xxiii, 18. "Behold I was a thought in the proof of the proof o I was shapen in iniquity."—Ib., li, 5. "A meat-offering baken in the oven."

I was stages in iniquity. —10., ii, 5. —A mean-onering concern in the oven. —Levitious, ii, 4.

"With casted slough, and fresh celerity."—Shakspeare.
"Thy dreadful vow, loaden with death."—Addison.

Obs. 2.—The list which is given below, (one that originated with G. B., and was prepared with great care,) exhibits the redundant verbs as they are now generally used, or as they may be used without grammatical impropriety. If the reader would see authorities for the forms admitted, he may find a great number cited in Brown's largest Grammar. No words are inserted in the following table, but such as some modern authors countenance. serted in the following table, but such as some modern authors countenance. A word is not necessarily *ungrammatical* by reason of having a rival form that is more common; nor is every thing to be repudiated which some few grammarians condemn.

One. 3.—This school grammar, as now revised by the author in 1854, exhibits the several classes of verbs in the same manner as does the Grammar of English Grammars, which was first published in 1851. All former lists of our irregular and redundant verbs are, in many respects, defective and

^{* &}quot;Writ and wrote were formerly often used as participles, and writ also as a pre-terit, but they are now generally discontinued by good writers."— Worcester's Dick.

erroneous; nor is it claimed for those which are here presented, that they are absolutely perfect. I trust, however, they are much nearer to perfection, than are any earlier ones. Among the many individuals who have published schemes of these verbs, none have been more respected and followed than Lowth, Murray, and Crombie; yet are these authors' lists severally faulty in respect to as many as sixty or seventy of the words in question, though the whole number but little exceeds two hundred, and is commonly reckoned less than one hundred and eighty.

Oss. 4.—The grammatical points to be settled or taught by these tables, are very many. They are more numerous than all the preterits and perfect participles which the lists exhibit; because the mere absence therefrom of any form of preterit or perfect participle implies its condemnation, and the omission from both, of any entire verb, suggests that it is always regular.

LIST OF THE REDUNDANT VERBS.

Imper. Participle. Perfect Participle.

Present. Preterit. Abide, abode or abided, Awake, awaked or awoke, Belay, belayed or belaid, Bend. bent or bended. Bereave, bereft or bereaved, besought or beseeched, betted or bet, betided or betid, Beseech. Bet, Betide, Bide, bode or bided. Blend, blended or blent, blessed or blest, blew or blowed, built or builded, Bless, Blow Build, Burn, burned or burnt, Burst, burst or bursted. Catch, caught or catched, clothed or clad, Clothe, Creep, crept or creeped, Crow, crowed or crew, Curse, cursed or curst, Dare, dared or durst, dealt or dealed, Deal, Dig, dug or digged, dived or dove, Dive, Dream, dreamed or dreamt, Dress, dressed or drest. Dwell. dwelt or dwelled, froze or freezed, Freeze, Geld, gelded or gelt, Ğild, gilded or gilt, Gird, girded or girt, graved, ground or grinded, hung or hanged, heated or het, Grave, Grind, Hang, Heat, Heave, heaved or hove. hewed, kneeled or knelt, Hew, Kneel, Knit, knit or knitted, Lade, laded, Lay, laid or layed, leaned or leant, Lean, leaped or leapt, Leap, Learn, learned or learnt, Light, lighted or lit,

abiding, awaking, belaying, bending, bereaving, beseeching, betting, betiding, biding, blending. blessing, blowing, building, burning, bursting, catching, clothing, creeping, crowing, cursing, daring, dealing, digging, diving, dreaming, dressing, dwelling, freezing, gelding, gilding, girding, graving, grinding, hanging, heating, heaving, hewing, kneeling, knitting, lading, laying, leaning, leaping, learning, lighting,

abode or abided. awaked *or* awoke belayed or belaid. bent or bended. bereft or bereaved besought or beseeched. betted or bet. betided or betid. bode or bided. blended or blent. blessed or blest. blown or blowed. built or builded. burned or burnt. burst or bursted. caught or catched. clothed or clad. crept or creeped. crowed. cursed or curst. dared. dealt or dealed. dug or digged. dived or diven. dreamed or dreamt. dressed or drest. dwelt or dwelled frozen or freezed. gelded or gelt. gilded or gilt. girded or girt. graved or graven ground or grinded. hung or hanged. heated or het. heaved or hoven. hewed or hewn kneeled or knelt. knit or knitted. laded or laden. laid or layed. leaned *or* l**ëant.** leaped or leapt. learned or learnt lighted or lit.

Preterit. Imper. Participle. Perfect Participle. Present. Mean, meant or meaned. meaning, meant or meaned. Mow, Mulct, mowing, mowed. mowed or mown. mulcted or mulct, mulcting, mulcted or mulct. Pass, passed or past, passing, passed or past. Pay, paid or payed, Pen, (to coop,) penned or pent, paid or payed. penned or pent. paying, penning, Plead. pleading, pleaded or pled. pleaded or pled. Prove, proved, proving, proved or proven. quitted or quit. Quit, quitting, quitted or quit, rapped or rapt, Rap, rapped or rapt. rapping, Reave, reft or reaved, reaving, reft or reaved. Rive, rived, riving, riven or rived. Roast, roasted or roast, roasting, roasted or roast. sawed, sawing, Saw, Seethe, sawed or sawn. seethed or sod, seething, seethed or sodden. shaking, Shake, shook or shaked, shaken or shaked. shaping, Shape, shaped, shaped or shapen. Shave, shaved, shaving, shaved or shaven. Shear, sheared or shore, shearing, sheared or shorn. Shine, shined or shone, shining, shined or shone. showed, Show, showing, showed or shown. sleeping, sliding, slept or sleeped, Sleep, slept or sleeped. slidden, slid or slided. Slide, slid or slided, Blit, slitting, slitted or slit, slitted or slit. Sméll. smelling, smelled or smelt, smelled or smelt. sowing, Sow, sowed, sowed or sown. Speed, sped or speeded. speeding, sped or speeded. spelled or spelt. Spell, Spill, spelled or spelt, spelling, spilled or spilt, spilling, spilled or spilt. split or splitted, splitting, split or splitted. Split, Spoil, Stave, spoiled or spoilt, spoiling, spoiled or spoilt. stove or staved, staving, stove or staved. Stay, staid or stayed, staid or stayed. staying, String, stringing, strung or stringed, strung or stringed. striving, strived or striven. Strive, strived or strove, strowed, Strow, strowing, strowed or strown. sweating, sweated or sweat. Sweat, sweated or sweat, swept or sweeped, Sweep, sweeping, swept or sweeped. swelling, Swell. swelled. swelled or swollen. thriving, thrived or thriven. Thrive, thrived or throve, throwing, Throw, threw or throwed, thrown or throwed. waking, waked or woke. Wake, waked or woke, Wax, waxing, waxed or waxen. waxed, Weave, wove or weaved, weaving, woven or weaved. Wed, wedded or wed, wedding, wedded or wed. Weep, weeping, wept or weeped, wept or weeped. Wet, wet or wetted. wetting, wet or wetted. Whet, whetting, whetted or whet. whetted or whet, Wind. winding, wound or winded. wound or winded. Wont, wonting, wont or wonted. worked or wrought. wont or wonted, Work, worked or wrought, working, wringed or wrung. Wring. wringed or wrung, wringing,

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

A defective verb is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, beware, ought, quoth.

INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. PART II.

Obs.—When any of the principal parts of a verb are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are also, of course, wanting. All the auxiliaries, except do, be, and have, are defective; but, as auxiliaries, they become parts of other verbs, and do not need the parts which are technically said to be "wanting." The following brief catalogue contains all our defective verbs, except methinks, with its preterit methought, which is not only defective, but impersonal, irregular, and deservedly obsolescent.

LIST OF THE DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Present.	Preterit.	Present.	Preterit.
Beware,		Shall,	should.
Can,	could.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	Quoth,	quoth.
Must,	must.	Wis,	wist.
Ought,	ought.	Wit,	wot.

Obs. 1.—Beware is not used in the indicative present. Must is never varied in termination. Ought is invariable, except in the solemn style, where we find oughtest. Will is sometimes used as a principal verb, and as such is regular and complete. Quoth is used only in ludicrous language, and is not varied. It seems to be properly the third person singular of the present; for it ends in th, and quod was formerly used as the preterit: as,

"Yea, so sayst thou, (quod Tröylus,) alas!"—Chaucer.

Obs. 2.—Wis, preterit wist, to know, to think, to suppose, to imagine, appears to be now nearly or quite obsolete; but it seems proper to explain it, because it is found in the Bible: as, "I wist not, brethren, that he was the high priest."—Acts, xxiii, 5. "He himself wist not that his face shone."—Life of Schiller, p. iv. Wit, to know, and wot, knew, are also obsolete except in the phrase to wit; which, being taken abstractly, is equivalent to the adverb namely, or to the phrase, that is to say.

Oss. 3.—Some verbs from the nature of the subject to which they refer, can be used only in the third person singular; as, It rains; it snows; it freezes; it hails; it lightens; it thunders. These have been called impersonal verbs. The neuter pronoun it, which is always used before them, does not seem to represent any noun, but, in connexion with the verb, merely to express a state of things.

press a state of things.

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CHAPTER VII.—OF PARTICIPLES.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding ing, d, or ed, to the verb: thus, from the verb rule, are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. ruling, 2. ruled, 3. having ruled.

Oss. 1.—Almost all verbs and participles seem to have their very essence in motion, or the privation of motion—in acting, or ceasing to act. And to all motion and rest, time and place are necessary concomitants; nor are the ideas of degree and manner often irrelevant. Hence the use of tenses and of ad-

very ""." whatsoever comes to pass, must come to pass sometime and sometable; and, in every event, something must be affected somewhat and somehow. Hence it is evident that those grammarians are right, who say, that
"all participles imply time." But it does not follow that the English participles divide time, like the tenses of a verb, and specify the period of
action; on the contrary, it is certain and manifest that they do not. The
phrase, "men labouring," conveys no other idea than that of labourers at
work; it no more suggests the time, than the place, degree, or manner of their
work. All these circumstances require other words to express them; as,
"Men now here awkwardly labouring much to little purpose."

One 2.—Participles retain the essential meaning of their verbs; and, like verbs, are either active-transitive, active-intransitive, passive, or neuter, in their signification. For this reason, many have classed them with the verbs. But their formal meaning is obviously different. They convey no affirmation, but usually relate to nouns or pronouns, like adjectives, except when they are joined with auxiliaries to form the compound tenses; or when they have in part the nature of substantives, like the Latin gerunds. Hence some have injudiciously ranked them with the adjectives. We have assigned them a separate place among the parts of speech, because experience has shown that it is expedient to do so.

One. 3.—The English participles are all derived from the roots of their respective verbs, and do not, like those of some other languages, take their names from the tenses. They are reckoned among the principal parts in the conjugation of their verbs, and many of the tenses are formed from them. In the compound forms of conjugation, they are found alike in all the tenses. They do not therefore, of themselves, express any particular time; but they denote the state of the being, action, or passion, in regard to its progress or completion. [See remarks on the Participles, in the Port-Royal Latin and Greek Grammars.]

CLASSES.

English verbs have severally three participles; which have been very variously denominated, perhaps the most accurately thus: the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, and the *Preperfect*. Or, as their order is undisputed, they may be conveniently called the *First*, the *Second*, and the *Third*.

I. The *Imperfect Participle* is that which ends commonly in ing, and implies a continuance of the being, action, or passion; as, being, loving, seeing, writing—being loved, being seen, being writing.

II. The Perfect Participle is that which ends commonly in ed or en, and implies a completion of the being, action,

or passion; as, been, loved, seen, written.

III. The Preperfect Participle is that which takes the sign having, and implies a previous completion of the being, action, or passion; as, having loved, having seen, having written—having been loved, having been writing, having been written.

The First or Imperfect Participle, when simple, is always formed by adding ing to the radical verb; as look, looking: when compound, it is formed by prefixing being

to some other simple participle; as, being reading, read, being completed.

The Second or Perfect Participle is always simple, and 7.0 is regularly formed by adding d or ed to the radical surverb: those verbs from which it is formed otherwise, are inserted in the list as being irregular or redundant.

The Third or Preperfect Participle is always compound, and is formed by prefixing having to the perfect, when the compound is double, and having been to the perfect or the imperfect, when the compound is triple: as, having spoken, having been spoken, having been speaking.

Obs. 1.—Some have supposed that both the simple participles denote present time; some have supposed that the one denotes present, and the other, past time; some have supposed that neither has any regard to time; and some have supposed that both are of all times. In regard to the manner of their signification, some have supposed the one to be active and the other to be passive; some have supposed the participle in ing to be active or neuter, and the other active or passive; and some have supposed that either of them may be active, passive, or neuter. Nor is there any more unanimity among grammarians, in respect to the compounds. Hence several different names have been loosely given to each of the participles; and sometimes with manifest impropriety; as when Buchanan, in his conjugations, calls being Active—and been, having been, and having had, Passive. The First participle has been called the Present, the Imperfect, the Active, the Present active, the Present active, the Present passive, the Present neuter; the Second has been called the Perfect, the Past, the Passive, the Perfect active, the Perfect passive, the Perfect neuter; and the Third has been called the Compound, the Compound active, the Compound passive, the Compound perfect, the Price prefect, the Preserfect, the Preperfect. But the application of a name is of little consequence, so that the thing itself be rightly understood by the learner. Grammar should be taught in a style at once neat and plain, clear and brief. Upon the choice of his terms the writer has bestowed much reflection; yet he finds it impossible either to please everybody, or to explain all the reasons for preference.

OBS. 2.—The participle in ing represents the action or state as continuing and ever incomplete; it is therefore rightly termed the Imperpeur participle: whereas the participle in ed always has reference to the action as done and complete; and is by proper contradistinction called the Perfect participle. It is hardly necessary to add, that the terms perfect and imperfect, as thus applied to the English participles, have no reference to time, or to those tenses of the verb which are usually (but not very accurately) named by these epithets. The terms present and past do denote time, and are in a kind of oblique contradistinction; but how well they apply to the participles may be seen by the following texts: "God was in Christ, reconciling the world unto himself."—
"We pray you in Christ's stead, be ye reconciled to God."—St. Paul.

Oss. 8.—The participle in ing has, by many, been called the Present participle. But it is as applicable to past or future, as to present time; otherwise such expressions as, "I had been writing,"—"I shall be writing," would be solecisms. It has also been called the active participle. But it is not always active, even when derived from an active verb: for such expressions as, "The goods are selling,"—"The ships are now building," are in use, and not without authority. The distinguishing characteristic of this participle is, that it denotes an unfinished and progressive state of the being, action, or passion; it is therefore properly denominated the Impersect participle. If the term were applied with reference to time, it would be no more objectionable than the word present, and would be equally supported by the usage of

P VII.]

linguists. This name is approved by Murray,* and adopted by

linguists. This name is approved by Murray,* and adopted by the more recent grammarians. See the works of Dr. Crombie, J. T. O. Churchill, R. Hiley, B. H. Smart, M. Harrison, W. G. Lewis, Culloch, E. Hazen, N. Butler, D. B. Tower, W. H. Wells, C. W. and Culloch, E. Hazen, N. Butler, D. B. Tower, W. H. Wells, C. W. and Deing, action, or passion, and should therefore be denominated the Property participle. But this completion may be spoken of as present, past, or the participle itself has no tenses, and makes no distinction of time, be should the name be supposed to refer to the perfect tense. The perfect priciple of transitive verbs, being used in the formation of passive verbs, semetimes called the passive participle. It has a passive signification, except when it is used in forming the compound tenses of the active verb. Hence the difference between the sentences, "I have written a letter," and, "I have a letter written;"—the former being equivalent to Scripsi literas, and the latter to Sunt mili litera scripts.

Obs. 5.—The third participle has most generally been called the Compound

Literas, and the latter to Sunt min litera scripts.

Ons. 5.—The third participle has most generally been called the Compound or the Compound Perfect. The latter of these terms seems to be rather objectionable on account of its length; and against the former it may be urged that, in the compound forms of conjugation, the first or imperfect participle is a compound: as, being urriting, being seen. Dr. Adam calls having loved the perfect participle actives, which he says must be rendered in Latin by the compound of the perfect of the subjunctive "as he having loved count amorniset." but the perfect participle actives, which he says must be rendered in Latin by the pluperfect of the subjunctive, "as, he having loved, quum amavisset," but it is manifest that the perfect participle of the verb to love, whether active or passive, is the simple word loved, and not this compound. Many writers erroneously represent the participle in ing as always active, and the participle in ed as always passive; and some, among whom is Buchanan, making no distinction between the simple perfect loved and the compound having loved, place the latter with the former, and call it passive also. But if this loved, place the latter with the former, and call it passive also. But if this loved, place the latter with the former, and call it passive also. But if this participle is to be named with reference to its meaning, there is perhaps no better term for it than the epithet Prepreser,—a word which explains itself, like prepaid or prerequisite. Of the many other names, the most correct one is Pluperfect,—which is a term of very nearly the same meaning. Not because this compound is really of the pluperfect tense, but because it always denotes being, action, or passion, that is, or was, or will be, completed before the doing or being of something else; and, of course, when the latter thing is represented as past, the participle must correspond to the pluperfect tense of its verb; as, "Having explained her views, it was necessary she should expatiate on the vanity and futility of the enjoyments promised by Pleasure." Jamieson's Rhet., p. 181. Here having explained is equivalent to when she had explained. explained.

Oss. 6.—Participles often become adjectives, and are construed before nouns to denote quality. The terms so converted form the class of participial adjectives. Words of a participial form may be regarded as adjectives. 1. When they reject the idea of time, and denote something customary of habitnal, rather than a transient act or state; as, A lying rogue, i.e., one addicted to lying. 2. When they admit adverbs of comparison; as, A more addicted to lying. 2. When they admit adverbs of comparison; as A more learned man. 3. When they are compounded with something that does not belong to the verb; as unfeeling, unfelt. There is no verb to unfeel; therefore, no participle unfeeling or unfelt. Adjectives are generally placed before

their nouns; participles, after them.

Obs. 7.—Participles in ing often become nouns. When preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, they are construed as nouns, and ought to have no regimen. A participle immedi-

^{* &}quot;The most unexceptionable distinction which grammarians make between the participles, is, that the one points to the continuation of the action, passion, or state denoted by the verb; and the other, to the completion of it. Thus, the present participle signifies imperject action, or action begun and not ended; as, 'I am writing a letter.' The past participle signifies action perfected, or finished: 'I have written a letter.'—'The letter is written.' —Murray's Grammar, 8vo, p. 65. "The first [participle] expresses a continuation; the others, a completion."—W. Allen's Gram. 18me, London, 1818, p. 62. 9*

ately preceded by a preposition, is not converted into a noun, and "beginner retains its regimen; as, "I thank you for helping him." Participles 134 this construction correspond with the Latin gerund, and are sometimes balled

construction correspond with the Latin gerund, and are sometimes called gerundives.

Oss. 8.—To distinguish the participle from the participial noun, the learner should observe the following four things: 1. Nouns take articles and adjectives before them; participles, as such, do not. 2. Nouns may govern the possessive case, but not the objective; participles may govern the objective case, but not the possessive. 8. Nouns may be the subjects or objects of verbs; participles cannot. 4. Participial nouns express actions as things; participles refer actions to their agents or recipients.

Oss. 9.—To distinguish the perfect participle from the preterit of the same form, observe the sense, and see which of the auxiliary forms will express it; thus, loved for being loved, is a participle; but loved for did love, is a preterit verb.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS V .-- ETYMOLOGICAL.

In the Fifth Praxis, it is required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and participles.

The definitions to be given in the Fifth Praxis, are two for an article, six for a noun, three for an adjective, six for a pronoun, seven for a verb, two for a participle—and one for an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition, or an interjection. Thus:---

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"Piety has the purest delight attending it."

Piety is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case.

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things.

The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

The singular number is that which denotes but one.
 The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

6. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb.

Has is an irregular active-transitive verb, from have, had, having, had; found in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, and singular number.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.
 An irregular verb is a verb that does not form the preterit and

the perfect participle by assuming d or ed. 3. An active-transitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which

has some person or thing for its object.

4. The indicative mood is that form of the verb which simply indi-

cates or declares a thing, or saks a question.

CHAP. VII. ETYMOLOGY.—PARSING.—PRAXIS V.

5. The present tense is that which expresses what now exists or is taking place.

6. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

7. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

The is the definite article.

1. An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns,

to limit their signification.

2. The definite article is the, which denotes some particular thing or

Purest is a common adjective, of the superlative degree; compared, pure,

purer, purest.

1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

2. A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation.

8. The superlative degree is that which is not exceeded.

Delight is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case.

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things.

8. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

6. The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

sition.

Attending is an imperfect participle, from the regular active-transitive verb, attend, attended, attended, attended.

1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding ing, d, ed, to the verb.

2. The imperfect participle is that which ends commonly in ing, and implies a continuance of the being, action, or passion.

It is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case.

der, and objective case.

1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

2. A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what person it is.

3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

6. The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

LESSON I.

Thou studiest. He returns. She mourns. I repent. We rejoice. You appear. They approach.

I suppose. Thou thinkst. He sits. She comes. It rains. You are known. They are deceived. We stand.

I was slighted. Thou durst not speak. He left the company. She seemed afraid. We knew the man. You were not there. They held him fast.

LESSON II.

I have been sick. Thou hast been taught. He had not found them. She will not go. We shall be preserved. You will not meet him. They will have been sold.

I saw the whole transaction: both parties disgraced them-

selves. They had a fierce dispute.

Their friends have been informed of all that has occurred, and have promised to repair the damage.

If the pupil has genius, application to study will improve

and adorn it.

A soul inspired with the love of truth, will summon all its powers to the pursuit of it.

LESSON III.

I shall consider it a particular favour, if you will send me the goods which were selected.

Think on me, when it shall be well with thee.—Bible.

It deserves our best skill to inquire into those rules by which we may guide our judgment.—Murray.

If we do not exercise our faculties, they will become im-

paired.—Allen.

When thou hast received a favour, remember it; when thou

hast granted one, forget it.

If we have sauntered away our youth, we must expect to be ignorant men.—Blair.

LESSON IV.

Avarice and cunning may acquire an estate; but they can-

not gain friends.—Murray.

They had acquired such a love for learning, that no allurements to indulgence could withdraw them from the pleasure of improving their minds.—Allen.

It may have escaped his notice; but such was the fact.

He must indeed have been a very extraordinary man, if he had never felt any sentiment of this kind rising in his breast.

By carrying some praiseworthy dispositions to excess, he bordered sometimes on what was culpable, and was often betrayed into actions that exposed him to censure.—Robertson.

The Scriptures are an authoritative voice, reproving, instructing, and warning the world; and declaring the only means ordained and provided for escaping the penalties of sin.

LESSON V.

Having discovered this transaction, he suspected their design; and, by withdrawing privately, eluded their craftiness.

A spirit less vigorous than Luther's, would have shrunk from dangers which he braved and surmounted.—Robertson. natural intrepidity did not forsake him at the approach

s do not attack the good man by surprise, and

not overwhelm him.—Blair.

· divine grace to enjoy with moderation the advantages or use world, neither lifted up by success, nor enervated by sensuality, he meets the changes of his lot without unmanly dejection.—Id.

LESSON VI.

Who covered the earth with such a pleasing variety of fruits and flowers? Who gave them their delightful fragrance, and painted them with such exquisite colours? Who causes the same water to whiten in the lily, that blushes in the rose? Do not these things indicate a cause infinitely superior to any finite being ?—Maxcy.

Acquaint thyself with God, if thou wouldst taste His works. Admitted once to his embrace, Thou shalt perceive, that thou wast blind before: Thine eye shall be instructed; and thine heart, Made pure, shall relish with divine delight, Till then unfelt, what hands divine have wrought.—Cowper.

CHAPTER VIII.—OF ADVERBS.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, They are now here, studying very diligently.

Oss. 1.—Adverbs briefly express what would otherwise require several words; as, Now, for at this time—Here, for in this place—Very, for in a high degree—Diligently, for in an industrious manner.

Oss. 2.—There are several customary combinations of short words which are used adverbially, and which some grammarians do not analyze in parsing; as, Not at all, at length, in vain. But all words that convey distinct ideas, should be taken separately.

CLASSES.

Adverbs may be reduced to four general classes: namely, adverbs of time, of place, of degree, and of manner.

I. Adverbs of time are those which answer to the question, When? How long? How soon? or How often? including these which ask.

OBS.—Adverbs of time may be subdivided as follows:-

Of time present; as, Now, yet, to-day, presently, instantly, immediately.
 Of time past; as, Already, yesterday, lately, recently, anciently, heretofore, hitherto, eince, ago, erewhile.
 Of time to come; as, To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth, by-and-by, soon,

erelong.

4. Of time relative; as, When, then, before, after, while, or whilet, till, wattil, seasonably, betimes, early, late.

5. Of time absolute; as, Always, ever, never, aye, eternally, perpetually,

6. Of time repeated; as, Often, oft, again, occasionally, frequently, some-times, seldom, rarely, now-and-then, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, once, twice,

thrice, or three times, &c.
7. Of the order of time; as, First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, &c.

II. Adverbs of place are those which answer to the question, Where? Whither? Whence? or Whereabout? including these which ask.

OBS.—Adverbs of place may be subdivided as follows:-

1. Of place in which; as, Where, here, there, yonder, above, below, about, around, somewhere, anywhere, elsewhere, everywhere, nowhere, wherever, within, without, whereabout, hereabout, thereabout.

2. Of place to which; as, Whither, hither, thither, in, up, down, back, forth, inwards, upwards, downwards, backwards, forwards.

3. Of place from which; as, Whence, hence, thence, away, out.

4. Of the order of place; as, First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, &c.

III. Adverbs of degree are those which answer to the question, How much? How little? or, to the idea of more or less.

-Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:

1. Of excess or abundance; as, Much, too, very, greatly, far, besides; chiefly, principally, mainly, generally; entirely, full, fully, completely, perfectly, wholly, totally, altogether, all, quite, clear, stark; exceedingly, excessively, extravagantly, intolerably; immeasurably, inconceivably, infinitely.

2. Of equality or sufficiency; as, Enough, sufficiently, equally, so, as, even.

3. Of deficiency or abatement; as, Little, scarcely, hardly, merely, barely,

- only, but, partly, partially, nearly, almost.

 4. Of quantity in the abstract; as, How, (meaning, in what degree,) know-ever, howsever, everso, something, nothing, anything, and other nouns of quantity used adverbially.
- IV. Adverbs of manner are those which answer to the question, How? or, by affirming, denying, or doubting, show how a subject is regarded.

-Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows:-

Of manner from quality; as, Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly, quickly, and many others formed by adding ly to adjectives of quality.
 Of affirmation or assent; as, Yes, yea, ay, verily, truly, indeed, surely,

certainly, doubtless, undoubtedly, certes, forecoth, amen.

3. Of negation; as, No, nay, not, nowise.

4. Of doubt; as, Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance, peradventure, may be.

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Of mode or way; as, Thus, so, how, somehow, however, however, like, else, otherwise, across, together, apart, asunder, namely, particularly, necessarily.
 Of cause; as, Why, wherefore, therefore.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

Adverbs sometimes perform the office of conjunctions, and serve to connect sentences, as well as to express some circumstance of time, place, degree, or manner: adverbs that are so used, are called conjunctive adverbs.

Obs. 1.—Conjunctive adverbs often relate equally to two verbs in different clauses, on which account it is the more necessary to distinguish them from others; as, "They feared when they heard that they were Romans."—Acts,

xvi, 38.

Obs. 2.—The following words are the most frequently used as conjunctive adverbs: after, again, also, as, before, besides, else, even, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, otherwise, since, so, then, thence, therefore, till, until, when,

over, necessary outer uses, success, or more, merely ore, suc, unoue, where, wherefore, while or whilet.

Ors. 3.—Adverbs of time, place, and manner, are generally connected with verbs or participles; those of degree are more frequently prefixed to adjections.

tives or adverbs.

Oss. 4.—The adverbs here, there, and where, when prefixed to prepositions, have the force of pronouns: as, Hereby, for by this; thereby, for by that; whereby, for by which. Compounds of this kind are, however, commonly reckoned adverbs. They are now somewhat antiquated. Oss. 5.—The adverbs how, when, whence, where, whither, why, and wherefore, are frequently used as interrogatives; but, as such, they severally belong to the classes under which they are placed.

MODIFICATIONS.

Adverbs have no modifications, except that a few are compared after the manner of adjectives: as, Soon, sooner, soonest; --- often, oftener, oftenest; --- long, longer, longest.

The following are irregularly compared: well, better, best: badly or ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most; **far, farther**, farthest; forth, further, furthest.

OBS. 1.—Most adverbs of quality, will admit the comparative adverbs more and most, less and least, before them: as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely; culpably, less culpably, least culpably. But these should be parsed separately: the degree of comparison, as an inflection, belongs only to the adverb prefixed; though the latter word also may be said to be compared by means of the former.

Obs. 2.—As comparison does not belong to adverbs in general, it should not be mentioned in parsing, except in the case of those few which are varied

by it.

CHAPTER IX.—OF CONJUNCTIONS.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected: as, "Thou and he are happy, because you are good."—L. Murray.

CLASSES.

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, copulative and disjunctive; and some of each of these

sorts are corresponsive.

I. A copulative conjunction is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition: as, "He and I shall not dispute; for, if he has any choice, I shall readily grant it."

II. A disjunctive conjunction is a conjunction that denotes opposition of meaning: as, "Be not overcome [by]

evil, but overcome evil with good."—Rom., xii, 21.

III. The corresponsive conjunctions are those which are used in pairs, so that one refers or answers to an other: as, "John came neither eating nor drinking."—Matthew, xi, 18.

LIST OF THE CONJUNCTIONS.

The following are the principal conjunctions:-

1. Copulative; And, as, both, because, even, for, if, that, then, since, seeing, so.

2. Disjunctive; Or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.

3. Corresponsive; Both—and; as—as; as—as; if—then; either—or; neither—nor; whether—or; though or although—yet.

CHAPTER X.—OF PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun: as, The paper lies before me on the desk.

Oss.—Every relation of course implies more than one subject. In all correct language, the grammatical relation of the words corresponds exactly to the relation of the things or ideas expressed; for the relation of words, is their dependence on each other according to the sense. To a preposition, the antecedent term of relation may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, a verb, an infinitive verb, or a participle. The learner must observe that the terms of relation are frequently transposed.

LIST OF THE PREPOSITIONS.

The following are the principal prepositions, arranged alphabetically: Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid or amidst, among or amongst, around, at, athwart;—Bating, before, behind, below, beneath, beside or besides, between or betwixt, beyond, by;—Concerning;—Down, during;—Ere, except, excepting;—For, from;—In, into;—Mid or midst;—Notwithstanding;—Of, off, on, out-of, over, overthwart;—Past, pending;—Regarding, respecting, round;—Since;—Through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward or towards;—Under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon;—With, within, without.

Oss. 1.—The words in the preceding list are generally prepositions. But when any of them are employed without a subsequent term of relation, they are either adjectives or adverbs. For, when it signifies because, is a conjunction; without, when used for unless, and notwithstanding, when placed before a nominative, are usually referred to the class of conjunctions also.

Oss. 2.—Several words besides those contained in the foregoing list, are

Obs. 2.—Several words besides those contained in the foregoing list, are (or have been) occasionally employed in English as prepositions: as, A, chiefly used before participles,) abaft, adown, afore, aloft, aloof, along-side, anear, aneath, anent, aslant, aslope, astride, atween, atwart, becouth, bywest, cross, dehors, despite, inside, left-hand, maugre, minus, onto, opposite, outside, per, plus, sans, spite, thorough, traverse, versus, via, withal, withinside.

CHAPTER XI.—OF INTERJECTIONS.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, Oh! alas! ah! poh! pshaw! avaunt!

One.—Of pure interjections but few are ordinarily admitted into books. As words or sounds of this kind serve rather to indicate feeling than to express thought, they seldom have any truly definable signification. Their use also is so variable, that there can be no very accurate classification of them. Some significant words properly belonging to other classes, are ranked with interjections, when uttered with emotion and in an unconnected manner.

LIST OF THE INTERJECTIONS.

The following are the principal interjections, arranged so-cording to the emotions which they are generally intended to indicate:—1. Of joy; eigh! hey! io!—2. Of sorrow; oh! ah! hoo! alas! alack! lackaday! welladay! or welaway!—3. Of wonder; heigh! ha! strange! indeed!—4. Of wishing, earnestness, or vocative address; (often with a noun or pronoun in the nominative absolute;) O!—5. Of praise; well-done! good! bravo!—6. Of surprise with disapproval; whew! hoity-toity! hoida! zounds! what!—7. Of pain or fear; oh! ooh! ah! eh! O dear!—8. Of contempt; fudge! pugh! pohl

pshaw! pish! tush! tut! humph!—9. Of aversion; foh! faugh! fie! fy! foy!—10. Of expulsion; out! off! shoo! whew! begone! awaunt! aroynt!—11. Of calling aloud; ho! soho! what-ho! hollo! holla! hallo! halloo! hoy! ahoy!—
12. Of exultation; ah! aha! huzza! hey! heyday! hurrah!—13. Of laughter; ha, ha, ha; he, he, he; te-hee, te-hee.—14. Of salutation; welcome! hail! all-hail!—15. Of calling to attention; ho! lo! la! law! look! see! behold! hark!—16. Of calling to silence; hush! hist! whist! 'st! aw! mum!—17. Of dread or horror; oh! ha! hah! what!—18. Of languor or weariness; heigh-ho! heigh-ho-hum!—19. Of stopping; hold! soft! avast! whoh!—20. Of parting; farewell! adieu! good-by! good-day!—21. Of knowing or detecting; oho! ahah! ay-ay!—22. Of interrogating; eh! ha! hey!

One.—Besides these, there are several others, too often heard, which are unworthy to be considered as parts of a cultivated language. The frequent use of interjections, savours more of thoughtlessness than of sensibility.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS VI.-ETYMOLOGICAL.

In the Sixth Praxis, it is required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and all their classes and modifications.

The definitions to be given in the Sixth Praxis, are two for an article, six for a noun, three for an adjective, six for a pronoun, seven for a finite verb, five for an infinitive, two for a participle, two (and sometimes three) for an adverb, two for a conjunction, one for a preposition, and two for an interjection. Thus:—

- "O! sooner shall the earth and stars fall into chaos!"
- 01 is an interjection, indicating earnestness.
 - An interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.
 - 2. The interjection of wishing or earnestness, is O.
- Sooner is an adverb of time, of the comparative degree; compared, soon, sooner, soonest.
 - An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.
 - Adverbs of time are those which answer to the question, When? How long? How soon? or, How often? including these which ask.
- The comparative degree is that which exceeds the positive.
 Shell is an auxiliary to full.

An auxiliary is a short verb prefixed to one of the principal parts of an other verb, to express some particular mode and time of the being, action, or passion.

The is the definite article.

1. An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns,

to limit their signification.
2. The definite article is the, which denotes some particular thing or things.

Earth is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case.

1, A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings

or things. 3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

8. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb.

is a copulative conjunction,

- A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected.
- 2. A copulative conjunction is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition.

Stare is a common noun, of the third person, plural number, neuter gender, and nominative case. 1. A nonn is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be

known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things.

8. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing serely spoken of.
4. The plural number is that which denotes more than one.

5 The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

6. The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb.

Shall fall is an irregular active-intransitive verb, from fall, fall, falling, fallen; found in the indicative mood, first-fature topes, think falling, fallen;

and plural number.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.
 An irregular verb is a verb that does not be acted upon.
 An active-intransitive verb is a verb that expresses an action

which has no person or thing for its object. 4. The indicative mood is that form of the verb, which simply indi-

cates or declares a thing, or asks a question.

5. The first-future tense is that which expresses what will take

place hereafter.

The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

The plural number is that which denotes more than one.

Into is a preposition.

1. A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before s noun or a pronoun.

Chaos is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case.

- 1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.
- 2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class, of beings or things
- 3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

 4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

 5. The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.

6. The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun. which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or prepo-

LESSON I.

There is nothing which more engages the affections of men, than a handsome address and graceful conversation.

It is a sign of great prudence, to be willing to receive instruction; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of it.

Good-nature in a companion is more agreeable than wit: and gives a certain air to the countenance, which is more amiable than beauty.

Men of the noblest dispositions, think themselves happiest, when others share with them in their happiness.

Then near approaching, 'Father, hail?' he cried;

And, 'Hail, my son!' the reverend sire replied.—Parnell.

LESSON II.

Ingratitude is a crime so shameful, that no one has ever yet been found, who would acknowledge himself guilty of it.

True greatness of mind is to be maintained only by Chris-

tian principles.

Small transgressions become great by frequent repetition: as small expenses, multiplied, insensibly waste a large revenue. A talkative follow applying to Isocrates for instruction, the orator asked him double his usual price;—' Because,' said he, 'I must both wach him to speak, and to hold his tongue.'

Hark! the bee winds her small but mellow horn, Blithe to salute the sunny smile of morn.—Rogers.

LESSON III.

Do not hurt yourselves or others by the pursuit of pleasure. Consult your whole nature. Consider yourselves not only as sensitive, but as rational beings; not only as rational, but social; not only as social, but immortal.

For what end has the lavish hand of Providence diffused innumerable objects of delight, but that all might rejoice in the privilege of existence, and be filled with gratitude to the benef-

icent author of it?—Carter.

O let not thy heart despise me! thou whom experience has not taught that it is misery to lose that which it is not happiness to possess.—Dr. Johnson.

Let never day nor night unhallow'd pass, But still remember what the Lord hath done.—Shak.

LESSON IV.

Man surely has some latent sense for which this place affords no gratification, or he has some desires distinct from sense, which must be satisfied before he can be happy.—Dr. Johnson.

I have found a man who can teach all that is necessary to be known; who, from the unshaken throne of rational fortitude, looks down on the scenes of life changing beneath him. He speaks, and attention watches his lips. He reasons, and conviction closes his periods.—Id.

Ignorance, when it is voluntary, is criminal; and he may properly be charged with evil, who refused to learn how he might prevent it.—Id.

Ha! at the gates what grisly forms appear! What dismal shricks of laughter wound the ear!—Merry.

LESSON V.

When we act according to our duty, we commit the event to him by whose laws our actions are governed, and who will suffer none to be finally punished for obedience.—Dr. Johnson.

When, in prospect of some good, whether natural or moral, we break the rules prescribed us, we withdraw from the direction of superior wisdom, and take all consequences upon ourselves.—Id.

Man cannot so far know the connexion of causes and events, as that he may venture to do wrong in order to do right.—Id.

When we pursue our end by lawful means, we may always console our miscarriage by the hope of future recompense.—

Id.

Ah, that deceit should steal such gentle shapes, And with a virtuous visor hide deep vice!—Shak.

LESSON VI.

How comfortless is the sorrow of him who feels at once the pangs of guilt, and the vexation of calamity which guilt has brought upon him!—Dr. Johnson.

He who will determine against that which he knows, because there may be something which he knows not, is not to be admitted among reasonable beings.—Id.

To live without feeling or exciting sympathy, to be fortunate

without adding to the felicity of others; or afflicted without tasting the balm of pity, is a state more gloomy than solitude; it is not retreat, but exclusion from mankind.—Id.

O happy peasant! Oh unhappy bard! His the mere tinsel, hers the rich reward.—Cowper.

LESSON VII.

It is the care of a very great part of mankind, to conceal their indigence from the rest; they support themselves by temporary expedients, and every day is lost in contriving for the morrow.—Dr. Johnson.

Pride is seldom delicate, it will please itself with very mean advantages; and envy feels not its own happiness, but when it may be compared with the misery of others.—Id.

This same grace is spoken of as the gift of God, as coming. by Jesus Christ, as reigning, as abounding, as operating.-Berkley.

If I were not a preacher, I know of no profession on earth of which I should be fonder than of that of a preceptor.—Luther.

> Nothing is proof against the general curse Of vanity, that seizes all below. The only amaranthine flower on earth Is virtue; the only lasting treasure, truth.—Cowper.

CHAPTER XII.—EXAMINATION.

QUESTIONS ON ETYMOLOGY,

LESSON I .- PARTS OF SPEECH.

Of what does Etymology treat?
How many and what are the parts of speech?
What is an article?—What are the examples?
What is an oun?—What examples are given?
What is an adjective?—How is this exemplified?
What is a pronoun?—How is this exemplified?
What is a verb?—How is this exemplified?
What is a participle?—How is this exemplified?
What is an adverb?—How is this exemplified?
What is a conjunction?—How is this exemplified?
What is a preposition?—How is this exemplified?
What is a preposition?—How is this exemplified?

LESSON II.—PARSING.

What is Parsing? What is a perfect definition?—What is a rule of grammar? What is a praxis? and what the literal meaning of the word? What is an example? What is an exercise? What is required of the pupil in the FIRST PRAXES of parsing.

How many definitions are here to be given for each part of speech? How is the following example parsed? "The patient ox submits to the yoke, and meekly performs the labour required of him."

[Now parse, in like manner, the three lessons of the First Practis.]

LESSON III. -- ARTICLES.

What is an Armore !-- Mention the examples ! Are an and a different articles, or the same? When is an used? and what are the examples? When is a used f and what are the examples fWhat form of the article do the sounds of w and y require fRepeat the alphabet, with an or a before the name of each letter. Name the parts of speech, with an or a before each name. How are the two articles distinguished in grammar? Which is the definite article, and what does it denote? Which is the indefinite article, and what does it denote? What modifications have the articles?

LESSON IV .- NOUNS.

What is a Nount—Can you give some examples? Into what general classes are nouns divided What is a proper noun?—a common noun?
What is a collective noun?—a nabetract noun?—a verbal or participial noun?
What is a collective noun?—an abetract noun?—a verbal or participial noun?
What is a thing eni generie?
What modifications have nouns? What are Persons in grammar? How many persons are there, and what are they called? What is the first person?—the second person?—the third person? What are Numbers in grammar? How many numbers are there, and what are they called ? What is the *singular* number?—the *plural* number? How is the plural number of nouns regularly formed?
What are the rules for adding s and es to form the plural?

LESSON V .- NOUNS.

What are Genders in grammar ? How many genders are there, and what are they called?
What is the masculine gender?—the feminine gender?—the neuter gender? What are Cases in grammar? How many cases are there, and what are they called? What is the *nominative* case? What is the subject of a verb? What is the possessive case? How is the possessive case of nouns formed? What is the objective case? What is the object of a verb, participle, or preposition? What is the declension of a noun? How do you decline the nouns friend, man, fox, and fly? LESSON VI.-PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the SECOND PRAXES of parsing? How many definitions are here to be given for each part of speech? How is the following example parsed? "James is a lad of uncommon talents."

[Now parse, in like manner, the two lessons of the Second Practs.]

LESSON VII .--- ADJECTIVES.

What is an ADJECTIVE ?—How is this exemplified?

Into what classes may adjectives be divided?

What is a common adjective?—a proper adjective?—a numeral adjective?—pronominal adjective?—a participial adjective?—a compound adjective?

What modifications have adjectives?
What is Comparison in grammar?
How many, and what are the degrees of comparison?
What is the positive degree?—the comparative degree?—the superlative degree?
What adjectives cannot be compared?
What adjectives are compared by means of adverbs?
How are adjectives regularly compared?—Compare great, wide, and hot.
To what adjectives are er and est applicable?
Is there any other mode of expressing the degrees?
How are the degrees of diminution expressed?
How do you compare good, bad, or ill, little, much, and many?
How de you compare far, near, fore, hind, in, out, up, low, and late?

LESSON VIIL-PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the THIRD FRAXIS of parsing?

How many definitions are here to be given for each part of speech?

How is the following example parsed? "I prefer the shortest course, though some other may be less intricate."

[Now parse, in like manner, the two lessons of the Third Practs.]

LESSON IX.-PRONOUNS.

What is a Pronoun?—Give the example.
How are pronouns divided?
What is a personal pronoun?—Tell the personal pronouns.
What is a relative pronoun?—Tell the relative pronouns.
What peculiarity has the relative what?
What is an interrogative pronoun?—Tell the interrogatives.
What modifications have pronouns?
What is the declension of a pronoun.
How do you decline the pronouns I, thou, he, she, and it?
What is said of the compound personal pronouns?
How do you decline who, which, what, and that?
How do you decline the compound relative pronouns?

LESSON X .- PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the FOURTH PRAXES of parsing? How many definitions are here to be given for each part of speech? How is the following example parsed? "She met them."

[Now parse, in like manner, the three lessons of the Fourth Practs.]

LESSON XI.-VERBS.

-What is a Verb?—What are the examples?
How are verbs divided with respect to their form?
What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb?—a redundant verb?—a defective verb?
How are verbs divided with respect to their signification?
What is an active-transitive verb?—an active-intransitive verb?—a passive verb?—a neuter verb?
What modifications have verbs?
What are Moods in grammar?

How many moods are there, and what are they called?

What is the infinitive mood?—the indicative mood?—the potential mood?—the subjunctive mood?—the imperative mood?

LESSON XII.-VERBS.

What are Tenses in grammar?

How many tenses are there, and what are they called?

What is the present tense?—the imperfect tense?—the perfect tense?—the pluperfect tense?—the first-future tense?—the second-future tense?

What are the Person and Number of a verb? How many persons and numbers belong to verbs? How are the second and third persons singular formed? What is the conjugation of a verb? What are the principal parts in the conjugation of a verb? What is a verb called which wants some of these parts? What is an aexiliary in grammar? What verbs are used as auxiliaries?

LESSON XIII .- CONJUGATION.

What is the simplest form of an English conjugation?
What is the first example of conjugation?
What are the principal parts of the verb Love?
How many and what tenses has the infinitive mood?—the indicative?—the
notential?—the subjunctive?—the imperative?
What is the verb Love in the Infinitive, present?—perfect?—Indicative, present?—imperfect?—perfect?—pluperfect?—Institute?—second-future?—
Potential, present?—imperfect?—perfect?—pluperfect?—Subjunctive, present?—imperfect?—Imperative, present? What are its participles?

LESSON XIV.—SYNOPSIS.

What is the synopsis of the verb LOVE, in the first person singular !—second person singular !—third person singular !—first person plural !—second person plural !—third person plural !

LESSON XV .- THE VERB SEE.

What is the second example of conjugation?

How is the verb see conjugated throughout?

How do you form a synopsis of the verb see, with the pronoun I? thou? he?

ees? you? they?

LESSON XVI.-THE VERB BE.

What is the third example of conjugation?
How is the verb re conjugated throughout?
How do you form a synopsis of the verb be, with the nominative I? thou?
he we you! they the man? the men?

LESSON XVII.-COMPOUND FORM.

How else may active and neuter verbs be conjugated?
What peculiar meaning does this form convey?
What is the fourth example of conjugation?
How is the verb read conjugated in the compound form?
How do you form a synopsis of the verb be reading, with the nominative I?
thou? he? we? you? they? the boy? the boys?

LESSON XVIII .- PASSIVE FORM.

How are passive verbs formed?
What is the fifth example of conjugation?
How is the passive verb be LOVED, conjugated throughout?
How do you form a synopsis of the verb be loved, with the nominative I?
thou? he? we? you? they? the child? the children?

LESSON XIX .--- OTHER FORMS.

How is a verb conjugated negatively?
How is the form of negation exemplified?
How is a verb conjugated interrogatively?
How is the form of question exemplified?
How is a verb conjugated interrogatively and negatively?
How is the form of negative question exemplified?

LESSON XX,-IRREGULAR VERBS.

What is an *irregular* verb?

What is an **rreyuur* verb ** How many irregular verb are there !—and whence are they derived !*
How does the list exhibit the irregular verbs !
What are the principal parts of the following verbs :—Arise,—Be, bear, beat, begin, behold, beset, bestead, bid, bind, bite, bleed, break, bread, bring, buy,—Cast, chide, choose, eleave, ding, come, cost, cut,—Do, draw, drink, drive,—Eat,—Fall, feed, feel, fight, find, flee, fling, fly, forbear, forsake,—Get, give, go, grow,—Have, hear, hide, hit, hold, hurt,—Keep, know!

LESSON XXL-IRREGULAR VERBS.

What are the principal parts of the following verbs:—Lead, leave, lend, let, lie, lose,—Make, meet,—Put,—Read, rend, rid, ride, ring, rise, run,—Say, see, seek, sell, send, set, shed, shoe, shoot, shut, shred, shrink, sing, sink, sit, slay, sling, slink, smite, speak, spend, spin, spit, spread, spring, stand, steal, stick, sting, stink, stride, strike, swear, swim, swing,—Take, teach, tear, tell, shink, thrust, tread,—Wear, win, write?

LESSON XXII.-BEDUNDANT VERBS.

What is a redundant verb? How many redundant verbs are there? What are the principal parts of the following verbs:—Abide, awake,—Belay, bend, bereave, beseech, bet, betide, bide, blend, bless, blow, build, burn, burst,—Catch, clothe, creep, crow, curse,—Dare, deal, dig, dive, dream, dress, dwell,—Freeze,—Geld, gild, gird, grave, grind,—Hang, heat, heave, hew,—Kneel, knit,—Lade, lay, lean, leap, learn, light,—Mean, mow,

LESSON XXIII .-- REDUNDANT VERBS.

What are the principal parts of the following verbs:—Pass, pay, pen, plead, prove,—Quit,—Rap, reave, rive, roast,—Saw, seethe, shake, shape, shave, shear, shine, show, sleep, slide, slit, smell, sow, speed, spell, spill, spilt, spoil, stave, stay, string, strive, strow, sweat, sweep, swell,—Thrive, throw,—Wake, wax, weave, wed, weep, wet, whet, wind, wort, write?

What is a defection work? What topses do such works look?

What is a defective verb?—What tenses do such verbs lack? What verbs are defective? and wherein are they so?

LESSON XXIV .-- PARTICIPLES.

What is a Participle? and how is it generally formed? How many kinds of participles are there? and what are they called?

How many kinds of participles are there and what are they called? How is the imperfect participle defined? and what are the examples? How is the perfect participle defined? and what are the examples? How is the first or imperfect participle formed? How is the second or perfect participle formed? How is the third or preperfect participle formed? What are the participles of the following verbs, according to the simplest form of conjugation:—Repeat, study, return, mourn, seem, rejoice, appear, approach suppose think set, come, rain, stand, know, deceive? approach, suppose, think, set, come, rain, stand, know, deceive?

LESSON XXV.—PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the FIFTH PRAXES of parsing? How many definitions are here to be given for each part of speech? How is the following example parsed? "Piety has the purest delight attending it."

[Now parse, in like manner, the six lessons of the Fifth Praxis.]

LESSON XXVI.-ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

What is an Advers!—What is the example? To what classes may adverbs be reduced?

Which are adverbs of time?—of place?—of degree?—of manner?
What are conjunctive adverbs?
Have adverbs any modifications?
Compare well, badly or ill, little, much, far and forth.
What is a CONJUNCTION?—How are conjunctions divided?
What is a compulative conjunction?—a disjunctive conjunction?—a corresponsive conjunction?
What are the copulative conjunctions?—the disjunctive?—the corresponsive?

LESSON XXVII.-PREPOSITIONS AND UNTERJECTIONS.

į .

What is a Preformon?—How are the prepositions arranged?
What are the prepositions beginning with a!—wits b!—with c!—with d!
—with e!—with f!—with w!—with m!—with n!—with o!—with p!—
with r!—with s!—with u!—with w!
What is an Intersection?—How are the interjections arranged?

what are the interjections arranged?

What are the interjections of joy?—of sorrow?—of wonder?—of wishing or earnestness?—of praise?—of surprise?—of pain or fear?—of contempt?—of aversion?—of expulsion?—of calling aloud?—of exultation?—of laughter?—of salutation?—of calling to attention?—of calling to silence?—of surprise?—of languer?—of stopping?—of parting?—of knowing or detecting?—of interrogating?

LESSON XXVIII. - PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the SIXTH PRAXIS of parsing?

How many definitions are here to be given for each part of speech?

How is the following example parsed? "O! sooner shall the earth and stars fall into chaos!"

[Now parse, in like manner, the seven lessons of the Sixth 1-axis.

CHAPTER XIII.—FOR WRITING

EXERCISES IN ETYMOLOGY.

[When the pupil has become familiar with the different parts of speach, and their classes and modifications, and has been sufficiently exercised in *etymological parsing*, he should *write out* the following exercises.]

EXERCISE I.—ARTICLES.

1. Prefix the definite article to the following nouns: path, paths; loss, losses; name, names; page, pages; want, wants;

doubt, doubts; votary, votaries.

2. Prefix the indefinite article to the following nouns: age, error, idea, omen, urn, arch, bird, cage, dream, empire, farm, grain, horse, idol, jay, king, lady, man, novice, opinion, pony, quail, raven, sample trade, uncle, vessel, window, youth, zone, whirlwind, union, onion, unit, eagle, house, honour, hour, herald, habitation, hospital, harper, harpoon, ewer, eye, humour.

8. Insert the definite article rightly in the following phrases:
George second—fair appearance—part first—reasons most obvious—good man—wide circle—man of honour—man of world—old books—common people—same person—smaller piece—rich and poor—first and last—all time—great excess—nine

muses-how rich reward-so small number-all ancient wri-

ters-in nature of things-much better course.

4. Insert the indefinite article rightly in each of the following phrases: new name—very quick motion—other sheep—such power—what instance—great weight—such worthy cause—too great difference—high honour—humble station—universal law—what strange event—so deep interest—as firm hope—so great wit—humocous story—such person—few dollars—little reflection.

EXERCISE II.—NOUNS.

1. Write the plural of the following nouns: town, country, case, pin, needle, harp, pen, sex, rush, arch, marsh, monarch, blemish, distich, princess, gas, bias, stigma, we, grotte, folio, punctilio, ally, duty, toy, money, entry, valley, volley, half, dwarf, strife, knife, roci, muff, staff, chief, sheaf, mouse, penny, ox, foot, erratum, axis, thesis, criterion, bolus, rebus, son-in-law, pailful, man-servant.

2. Write the feminines corresponding to the following nouns: earl, friar, stag, lord, duke, marquis, hero, executor, nephew, heir, acor, enchanter, hunter, prince, traitor, lion, arbiter, tutor, ongster, abbot, master, uncle, widower, son,

landgrave.

3. Write the possessive case singular of the following nouns: table, leaf boy, torch, park, porch, portico, lynx, calf, sheep, wolf, ech; folly, cavern, father-in-law, court-martial.

4. Write the possessive case, plural, of the following nouns: priest, tutor, scholar, mountain, city, courtier, judge, citizen,

women, servant, writer, mother.

5 Write the possessive case, both singular and plural, of the following nouns: body, fancy, lady, attorney, negro, nunco, life, brother, deer, child, wife, goose, beau, envoy, distaff, colloquy, hero, thief, wretch.

EXERCISE III.—ADJECTIVES.

1. Annex a suitable noun to each of the following adjectives, without repeating any word: good, great, tall, wise, strong, dark, dangerous, dismal, drowsy, twenty, true, difficult, pale, livid, ripe, delicious, stormy, rainy, convenient, heavy.

—good pens, &c.

2. Prefix a suitable adjective to each of the following nouns, without repeating any word: man, son, merchant, work, fence, fear, poverty, picture, prince, delay, suspense, devices, follies,

actions. Thus—wise man, &c.

3. Compare the following adjectives: black, bright, short,

white, old, high, wet, big, few, lovely, dry, fat, good, bad,

little, much, many, far.

4. Express the degrees of the following qualities, by the comparative adverbs of increase: delightful, comfortable, agreeable, pleasant, fortunate, valuable, wretched, vivid, timid, poignant, excellent.

5. Express the degrees of the following qualities by the comparative adverbs of diminution; objectionable, formidable,

forcible, comely, pleasing, obvious, censurable, prudent.

EXERCISE IV.—PRONOUNS.

1. Write the nominative plural of the following pronouns: I, thou, he, she, it, who, which, what, that.

2. Write the declension of the following pronouns: myself,

thyself, himself, herself, itself, whosoever.

- 3. Write the following words in their customary form: her's, it's, our's, your's, their's, who's, meself, hisself, their-selves.
 - 4. Write the objective singular of all the simple pronouns.

5. Write the objective plural of all the simple pronouns.

EXERCISE V.—VERBS.

1. Write the four principal parts of each of the following verbs: slip, thrill, caress, force, release, crop, try, die, obey, delay, destroy, deny, buy, come, do, feed, lie, say, huzza.

2. Write the following preterits in their appropriate form: exprest, stript, lispt, dropt, jumpt, prest, topt, whipt, soakt, propt, fixt, stopt, pluckt, crost, stept, distrest, gusht, confest, snapt, brusht, shipt, kist, discust, lackt.

8. Write the following verbs in the indicative mood, present tense, second person singular: move, strive, please, reach, confess, fix, deny, survive, know, go, outdo, close, lose, pursue.

4. Write the following verbs in the indicative mood, present tense, third person singular: leave, seem, search, impeach, fear, redress, comply, bestow, do, woo, sue, view, allure, rely, beset, release, be, bias.

5. Write the following verbs in the subjunctive mood, present tense, in the three persons singular: serve, shun, turn, learn, find, wish, throw, dream, possess, detest, disarm, allow,

pretend.

EXERCISE VI.—VERBS.

1. Write a synopsis of the first person singular of the active verb amuse, conjugated affirmatively.

2. Write a synopsis of the second person singular of the neuter verb sit, conjugated affirmatively in the solemn style.

3. Write a synopsis of the third person singular of the active verb speak, conjugated affirmatively in the compound form.

4. Write a synopsis of the first person plural of the passive

verb be reduced, conjugated affirmatively.

5. Write a synopsis of the second person plural of the active verb lose, conjugated negatively.

6. Write a synopsis of the third person plural of the neuter

verb stand, conjugated interrogatively.

7. Write a synopsis of the first person singular of the active verb derive, conjugated interrogatively and negatively.

EXERCISE VII.—PARTICIPLES.

1. Write the simple imperfect participles of the following verbs: belong, provoke, degrade, impress, fly, do, survey, vie, coo, let, hit, put, defer, differ, remember.

2. Write the perfect participles of the following verbs: turn, burn, learn, deem, crowd, choose, draw, hear, lend, sweep,

tear, thrust, steal, write, delay, imply, exist.

3. Write the pluperfect or preperfect participles of the following verbs: depend, dare, deny, value, forsake, bear, set, sit, lay, mix, speak, sleep, allot.

4. Write the following participles in their appropriate form: dipt, deckt, markt, equipt, ingulft, embarrast, astonisht, tost, embost, absorpt, attackt, gasht, soakt, hackt, blest, curst.

5. Write the regular participles which are now generally preferred to the following irregular ones: clad, graven, hoven, ĥewn, knelt, leant, lit, mown, quit, riven, sawn, sodden, shaven,

shorn, sown, strown, swollen, thriven, wrought.

6. Write the irregular participles which are, or may be, preferred to the following regular ones: bended, builded, catched, creeped, dealed, digged, dreamed, dwelled, gilded, girded, hanged, knitted, laded, meaned, reaved, shined, slitted, splitted, stringed, strived, weeped, wonted, wringed.

EXERCISE VIII.—ADVERBS, &c.

1. Compare the following adverbs: soon, often, well, badly or ill, little, much, far, forth.

2. Prefix the comparative adverbs of increase to each of the following adverbs: purely, fairly, sweetly, earnestly, patiently, completely, fortunately, profitably.

3. Prefix the comparative adverbs of diminution to the following adverbs: secretly, slily, liberally, favourably, power-

fully.

4. Insert suitable conjunctions in place of the following dashes: Love—fidelity are inseparable. Beware of parties—factions. Do well—boast not. Improve time—it flies. There would be few paupers—no time were lost. Be not proud—thou art human. I saw—it was necessary. Honesty is better—policy. Neither he—I can do it. It must be done—to day—to morrow. Take care—thou fall. Though I should boast—am I nothing.

5. Insert suitable prepositions in the place of the following dashes: Plead—the dumb. Qualify thyself—action—study. Think often—the worth—time. Live—peace—all men. Keep—compass. Jest not—serious subjects. Take no part—slander. Guilt starts—its own shadow. Grudge not—giving. Go not—sleep—malice. Debate not—temptation. Depend not—the stores—others. Contend not—trifles. Many fall—

grasping—things—their reach. Be deaf—detraction.

6. Correct the following sentences, and adapt the interjections to the emotions expressed by the other words: Aha! aha! I am undone. Hey! io! I am tired. Ho! be still. Avaunt! this way. Ah! what nonsense. Heigh-ho! I am delighted. Hist! it is contemptible. Oh! for that sympathetic glow! Ah! what withering phentoms glore!

thetic glow! Ah! what withering phantoms glare!

PART III.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

The relation of words, is their dependence, or con-

nexion, according to the sense.

The agreement of words, is their similarity in person,

number, gender, case, mood, tense, or form.

The government of words, is that power which one word has over an other, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The arrangement of words, is their collocation, or relative position, in a sentence.

CHAPTER I.—OF SENTENCES.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, making complete sense, and always containing a nominative and a verb; as, "Reward sweetens labour."

The principal parts of a sentence are usually three; namely, the SUBJECT, or nominative,—the attribute, or finite VERB,—and the case put after, or the object governed by the verb; as, "Crimes deserve punishment."

The other parts depend upon these, either as primary or as secondary adjuncts; as, "High crimes justly deserve very severe punishments."

Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound.

A simple sentence is a sentence which consists of one single assertion, supposition, command, question, or exclamation; as, "David and Jonathan loved each other."

—"Do violence to no man."—"Were I Brutus."

A compound sentence is a sentence which consists of two or more simple ones either expressly or tacitly connected; as, "Send men to Joppa, and call for Simon, whose surname is Peter; who shall tell thee words, where by thou and all thy house shall be saved."—Acts, xi, 13.

A clause, or member, is a subdivision of a compound

A clause, or member, is a subdivision of a compound sentence; and is itself a sentence, either simple or compound.

A phrase is two or more words which express some relation of different ideas, but no entire proposition; as, "By the means appointed"—"To be plain with you."

Words that are omitted by *ellipsis*, and that are necessarily understood in order to complete the construction, must be supplied in parsing.

THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. RULES OF RELATION AND AGREEMENT.

RULE I .--- ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the nouns which they limit.

RULE II.—NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or a Pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.

RULE III.—APPOSITION.

A Noun or a personal Pronoun used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case.

RULE IV. --- ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns.

RULE V .-- PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender.

RULE VI.-PRONOUNS.

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Pronoun must agree with it in the plural number.

RULE VII.—PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun see two or more antecedents con-

nected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number.

RULE VIII.-PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number.

RULE IX.—VERBS.

A finite Verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number.

RULE X .-- VERBS.

When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Verb must agree with it in the plural number.

RULE XI.-VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more nominatives connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number.

RULE XII.-VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number.

RULE XIII .- VERBS.

When Verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed.

RULE XIV .- PARTICIPLES.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or else are governed by prepositions.

RULE XV.-ADVERBS.

Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs.

RULE XVI.-CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions connect either words or sentences.

RULE XVII. - PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions show the relations of things.

RULE XVIII.—INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections have no dependent construction.

2. RULES OF GOVERNMENT.*

RULE XIX.—POSSESSIVES.

A noun or a pronoun in the Possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed.

RULE XX. -- QBJECTIVES.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the Objective case.

RULE XXI. - SAME - CASES.

Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing.

RULE XXII.--OBJECTIVES.

Prepositions govern the Objective case.

RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES.

The preposition To governs the Infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb.

RULE XXIV .-- INFINITIVES.

The active verbs, bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and their participles, usually take the Infinitive after them, without the preposition To.

RULE XXV.-NOM. ABSOLUTE.

A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the Nominative, when its case depends on no other word.

RULE XXVI.-SUBJUNCTIVES.

A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the Subjunctive, present; and a mere supposition, with indefinite time, by a verb in the Subjunctive, imperfect: but a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the Indicative mood.

^{*} The Arrangement of words is treated of, in the Observations under the Rules of Syntax, in Chapters 2d and 3d.

THE ANALYZING OF SENTENCES.

To analyze a sentence, is, to resolve it into some species of constituent parts, but most properly into words, its first significant elements, and to point out their several relations and powers in the given connexion.

The component parts of a sentence are members, clauses, phrases, or words. Some sentences, which are short and simple, can only be divided into their words; others, which are long and complex, may be resolved into parts

again and again divisible.

Of analysis applicable to sentences, there are several different methods; and, so far as their difference may compatibly aid the application of different principles of the science of grammar, there may be an advantage in the occasional use of each.

Parsing is either partial or complete; and, when duly graduated, has initiatory steps, or a series of preparatory praxes pertaining to etymology: yet is it ever, essentially, so far as it goes, one and the same process; and, in its completeness, or as Full Syntactical Parsing, it is the very best method of sentential analysis.

FIRST METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

Sentences not simple may be reduced to their constituent members, clauses, or simple sentences; and the means by which these are united, may be shown. Thus:—

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

"Even the Atheist, who tells us that the universe is self-existent and indestructible—even he, who instead of seeing the traces of a manifold wisdom in its manifold varieties, sees nothing in them all but the exquisite structures and the lofty dimensions of materialism—even he, who would despoil creation of its God, cannot look upon its golden suns, and their accompanying systems, without the solemn impression of a magnificence that fixes and overpowers him."—Dr. Chalmers, Discourses on Revelation and Astronomy, p. 231.

ANALYSIS.—This is a compound sentence, consisting of three complex members, which are separated by the two dashes. The three members are united in one sentence, by a suspension of the sense at each dash, and by two virtual repetitions of the subject, "Atherst," through the pronoun "he," put in the same case, and representing this noun. The sense mainly intended is not brought out till the period ends. Each of the three members is complex, because each has not only a relative clause, commencing with "soho," but also an antecedent word which makes sense with "cashest

look," &c. The first of these relative clauses involves also a subordinate, supplementary clause,—"the universe is self-existent and indestructible,"—introduced after the verb "telle" by the conjunction "that." The last phrase, "without the solomn impression," &c., which is subjoined by "without" to "cannot look," embraces likewise a subordinate, relative clause,—"that fixes and overpowers him,"—which has two verbs; the whole, antecedent and all, being but an adjunct of an adjunct, yet an essential element of the sentence.

SECOND METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

Simple sentences, or the simple members of compound sentences, may be resolved into their principal and their subordinate parts; the subject, the verb, and the case put after or governed by the verb, being first pointed out as the principal parts; and the other words being then detailed as adjuncts to these, according to the sense, or as adjuncts to adjuncts. Thus:—

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

"Fear naturally quickens the flight of guilt. Rasselas could not catch the fugitive, with his utmost efforts; but, resolving to weary, by perseverance, him whom he could not surpass in speed, he pressed on till the foot of the mountain stopped his course."—Dr. Johnson, Rasselas, p. 23.

ANALYSIS.—The first period here is a simple sentence. Its principal parts are—
Fear, quickens, flight; Fear being the subject, quickens the verb, and flight the
object. Fear has no adjunct; naturally is an adjunct of quickens; the and of quilt
are adjuncts of flight. The second period is composed of several clauses, or simple
members, united. The first of these is also a simple sentence, having three principal
parts—Rasselas, could catch, and flighties; the subject, the verb, and its object, in
their order. Not is added to could catch, reversing the meaning the is an adjunct to
flighties; with joins its phrase to could not catch; but his and utmost are adjuncts
of sforts. The word but connects the two chief members as parts of one sentence.
Resolving to every." is an adjunct to the pronoun ha, which stands before presend.
"By perseverance," is an adjunct to weary. Him is governed by weary, and is the
antecedent to whom. "Whom he could not europes in speed," is a relative clause, or
subordinate simple member, having three principal parts—he, could surpass, and
sohom. Not and in speed are adjuncts to the verb could surpass. "He pressed on;
is an other simple member, or sentence, and the chief clause here used, to ches
being subjoined to this. Its principal parts are two, he and pressed; the latter taking
the particle on as an adjunct, and being intransitive. The words dependent on the
nominative ha, (to wit, resolving, &c.,) have already been mentioned. Till is a conjunctive advert of time, connecting the concluding clause to pressed on. "The foot
of the mountain topped his course," is a subordinate clause and simple member,
whose principal parts are—the subject foot, the verb stopped, and the object course,
The adjunct but course, which is better reckoned a principal word; lastly, his is an adjunct
to course, and governed by it.

THIRD METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

Sentences may be partially analyzed by a resolution into their Subjects and their PREDICATES, a method which some late grammarians have borrowed from the logicians; the grammatical subject with its adjuncts, being taken for the logical subject; and the finite verb, which some call the grammatical predicate, being, with its subsequent case and the adjuncts of both, denominated the predicate, or the logical predicate. Thus:—

6*

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

"Such is the emptiness of human enjoyment, that we are always impatient of the present. Attainment is followed by neglect, and possession, by disgust. Few moments are more pleasing than those in which the mind is concerting measures for a new undertaking. From the first hint that wakens the fancy, to the hour of actual execution, all is improvement and progress, triumph and felicity."—Dr. Johnson, Rambler.

progress, triumph and felicity."—Dr. Johnson, Rambler.

Analysis.—Here the first period is a compound sentence, containing two clauses, which are connected by that. In the first clause, emptinese is the grammatical spiect, and "the emptinese of human enjoyment," is the logical. Is, some would call the grammatical predicate, and "Such is," or is such, the logical; but the latter consists, as the majority teach, of "the copula" is, and "the attribute," or "predicate," such. In the second clause, (which explains the import of "such,") the subject is we; which is unmodified, and in which therefore the logical form and the grammatical coincide and are the same. Are may here be called the grammatical predicate; and "are always impatient of the present," the logical. The second period, too, is a compound sentence, having two clauses, which are connected by and. Attainment is the subject of the former; and, "is followed by neglect," is the predicate. In the latter, possession alone is the subject; and, "is followed by neglect," is the predicate; the worb is followed being understood at the comma. The third period, likewise, is a compound, having three parts, with the two connectives than and which. Here we have moments for the first grammatical subject, and Few moments for the logical; then, are for the grammatical predicate, and are more pleasing for the logical; or, if we choose to say so, for "the copula and the attribute." "Than those," an elliptical member, meaning, "than are those moments," or, "than those moments are pleasing," both subject and predicate are wholly suppressed, except that these is reckoned a part of the logical subject. In which is an adjunct of is concerting, and sorves well to connect the members, because which represents those, i. e., those moments. Wind, or the mind, is the next subject of affirmation; and is concerting, or, "is concerting moneures for a new undertakting," is the predicate, or the matter affirmed. Lastly, the fourth period, like the rest, is compound. The phrases commencing

FOURTH METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

All Syntax is founded on the RELATION of words one to an other, and the connexion of clauses and phrases, according to THE SENSE. Hence sentences may be in some sort analyzed, and perhaps profitably, by the tracing of such relation or connexion, from link to link, through a series of words, beginning and ending with such as are somewhat remote from each other, yet within the period. Thus:--

EXAMPLE ANALYZED.

"Swift would say, 'The thing has not life enough in it to keep it sweet;' Johnson, 'The creature possesses not vitality sufficient to preserve it from putrefaction." -- MATT, HARRIson, on the English Language, p. 102.

ANALYSIS.—What is the general sense of this passage? and what, the chain of connexion between the words Swift and putrefaction? The period is designed to show, that Swift preferred words of Saxon origin; and Johnson, of Latin. It has in contrast

two coördinate raembers, tacitly connected; the verb would say being understood after Johnson, and perhaps also the particle but, after the semicolon. Swift is the subject of would say; and would say introduces the clause after it, as what would be said. The relates to thing; thing is the subject of has; hat, which is qualified by not, governs life; life is qualified by the adjective enough, and by the phrase, in ti; enough is the prior term of to; to governs keep; keep governs it, which stands for the thing; and it, in lieu of the thing, is qualified by sweet. The chief members are connected either by standing in contrast as members, or by but, understood before Johnson. Johnson is the subject of would say, understood; and this would surfus virtually repeated, again introduces a clause, as what would be said. The relates to creature; creature is the subject of possesses; possesses, which is qualified by sufficient; sufficient is the prior term of to; to governs preserve; preserve governs it, and is the prior term of from; and from governs putrefluction.

FIFTH METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

The best and most thorough method of analysis is that of COMPLETE SYNTACTICAL PARSING; a method which, for the sake of order and brevity, should ever be kept free from all mixture of etymological definitions or reasons, but which may be preceded or followed by any of the foregoing schemes of resolution, if the teacher choose to require any such preliminary or subsidiary exposition. This method is illustrated in Praxis Seventh, which follows.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS VII.—SYNTACTICAL.

The grand clew to all syntactical parsing, is the sense; and as any composition is faulty which does not rightly deliver the author's meaning, so every solution of a word or sentence is necessarily erroneous, in which that meaning is not carefully noticed and literally preserved.

In all syntactical parsing, it is required of the pupit—to distinguish the different parts of speech and their classes; to mention their modifications in order; to point out their relation, agreement, or government; and to apply the Rules of Syntax. Thus:—

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"My friends, this enterprise, alas! which once seemed likely to be very beneficial, will never compensate us for the trouble and expense with which it has been attended."

My is a personal pronoun, representing the speaker or writer; in the first person, singular number, and masculine gender; according to Rule V, which says, "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender:" and is in the possessive case, being governed by friends; according to Rule XIX, which says, "A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed." Because the meaning is—my friends; i. e., ye friends of the speaker or vertier.

Friends is a common noun, of the second person, plural number, masculine gender, and nominative case: and is put absolute by direct address; according to Rule XXV, which says, "A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word." Because the meaning is—My friends;—the noun being a mere call to the persons addressed.

This is a pronounian adjective, of the singular number, not compared: and relates to enterprise; according to Rule IV, which says, "Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouna" Because the meaning is—this enterprise.

Enterprise is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case: and is the subject of vill compensate; according to Rule II, which says, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of subject of the compensate, must be in the nominative case." Because the meaning is—enterprise will compensate.

Alos is an interjection, indicating sorrow: and is used independently: according to

will compensate.

Also is an interjection, indicating sorrow: and is used independently; according to Rule XVIII, which says, "Interjections have no dependent construction." Because the meaning is—also !—unconnected with the rest of the sentence.

Which is a relative pronoun, representing enterprise; in the third person, singular number, and neuter gender; according to Rule V, which says, "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender: and is in the nominative case, being the subject of seemed; according to Rule II, which says, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case." Because the meaning is—which seemed;—i.e., this enterprise, which seemed.

Once is an adverb of time: and relates to seemed; according to Rule XV, which says, "Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs." Because the meaning is—once seemed.

the meaning is once seemed.

Seemed is a regular neuter verb, from seem, seemed, seeming, seemed; found in the indicative mood, imperfect tense, third person, and singular number: and agrees with its nominative which; according to Rule IX, which says, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number."

Because the meaning is—which seemed.

Because the meaning is—which seemed.

Likely is a common adjective, of the positive degree; compared, likely, likelier, likeli

meaning is—likely to ba.

Be is an irregular neuter verb, from be, was, being, been; found in the infinitive mood, present tense—no person, no number: and is governed by to; according to Rule XXIII, which says, "The preposition to governs the infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb." Because the meaning is—to be.

Very is an adverb of degree: and relates to beneficial; according to Rule XV, which says, "Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs." Because the meaning is—very beneficial.

Beneficial is a common adjective, of the positive degree; compared only by means of the adverbs, more and most, or less and least: being introduced by the infinitive verb be, it relates to the pronoun which, and through that to the antecedent; according to Rule IV, which says, "Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns." Because the meaning is—voluck seemed likely to be beneficial.

Will is an auxiliary to compensate.

pronouns." Because the meaning is—which seemed likely to be beneficial.

Will is an auxiliary to compensate.

Never is an adverb of time: and relates to will compensate; according to Rule XV, which says, "Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs."

Because the meaning is—never will compensate.

Will compensate is a regular active-transitive verb, from compensate, compensated, compensated, compensated; found in the indicative mood, first-future tense, third person, and singular number: and agrees with its nominative enterprise; according to Rule IX, which says, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number." Because the meaning is—enterprise will compensate.

Us is a personal pronoun, representing the speakers, or a number of persons as in-

Us is a personal pronoun, representing the speakers, or a number of persons as including the speaker or worter; in the first person, plural number, and masculine gender; according to Rule V, which says, "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender;" and is in the objective case, being governed by will compensate; according to Rule XX, which says, "Active-transitive verbe and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case." Because the meaning is—will compensate us;—i. a, will compensate the meaning is—will compensate us;—i. a, will compensate the

For is a preposition: and shows the relation between trouble and expense and will

compensate; according to Rule XVII, which says, "Prepositions show the relations of things." Because the meaning is—soill compensate for trouble

resisions of things." Because the meaning is—south compensate for trouble and copense.

The is the definite article: and relates to the nouns which they limit." Because the meaning is—the trouble and copense.

Trouble is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case: and is governed by for; according to Rule XXII, which says, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Because the meaning is—for trouble.

And is a copulative conjunction: and connects trouble and expense; according to Rule XVI, which says, "Conjunctions connect either words or sentences."

Because the meaning is—trouble and expense.

Because the meaning is—trouble and expense.

Repense is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case: and is connected by and to trouble, and governed by for; according to Ende XXII, which says, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Because the meaning is—for trouble and expense.

With is a preposition: and shows the relation between which and has been attended; and been attended with, which says, "Prepositions show the relations of things." Because the meaning is—which it has been attended with—or, has been attended with—or, has been attended with—or, has

been attended with which.

Which is a relative pronoun, representing trouble and expense; in the third person, plural number, and neuter gender; according to Rule VII, which says, "When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number:" and is in the objective case, being govern the objective case." Because the meaning is—with which;—i. e., with which trouble

and expense.

R is a personal propoun, representing enterprise; in the third person, singular number, and neuter gender; according to Rule V, which says, "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender:" and is in the nominative case, being the subject of has been disended; according to Rule II, which says, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case," Because the meaning is—it has been attended;—i.e., the enterprise has been

Has been attended is a regular passive verb, from the active verb attend, attended, attended, passive, to be attended; found in the indicative mood, perfect tense, third person, and singular number: and agrees with its nominative it; according to Bule IX, which says, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number." Because the meaning is —the has been attended.

LESSON I .- RULE I.

A man of a lively imagination, has a property in every thing which he sees; and exults in the happiness of the myriads of living creatures that inhabit the woods, the lawns, and the

As the branches of a tree return their sap to the root, from which it arose; as a river pours its waters to the sea, from which its springs were supplied; so the heart of a grateful man delights in returning a benefit received.

Spring hangs her infant blossoms on the trees, Rock'd in the cradle of the western breeze.—Cowper.

LESSON II .--- RULE II.

We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator, with certain unalienable rights: that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.—Dec. of Independence.

They who are moderate in their expectations, meet with few

disappointments.

Which, now, of these three [men,] thinkest thou, was neighbour unto him that fell among the thieves? And he said, 'He that showed mercy on him.'—Luke, x, 36.

Who takes care of all people, when they are sunk in sleep, when they cannot defend themselves, nor see if danger ap-

proaches?—Barbauld.

Men whose circumstances will permit them to choose their own way of life, are inexcusable, if they do not pursue that which their judgment tells them is the most laudable.—Blair.

Thou rather, with thy sharp and sulph'rous bolt, Splitst the unwedgeable and gnarled oak.—Shak.

LESSON III.-RULE III.

In the fifth century, the Franks, a people of Germany, invaded France.—Allen.

Jerusalem, the Jewish capital, was destroyed by the Romans

under Titus the son of Vespasian.

In the days of Joram, king of Israel, flourished the prophet Klisha.—Blair.

Sisera fled, and took refuge in the tent of Jael, a woman of the Kenite tribe, the descendants of Hobab, Moses's brother-inlaw.—Milman.

Him, Tubal nam'd, the Vulcan of old times, The sword and falchion their inventor claim.—Cowper. Virtue itself, 'scapes not calumnious strokes.—Shak. All now are vanished! Virtue sole survives; Immortal, never-failing friend of man, His guide to happiness on high.—Thomson.

LESSON IV .- RULE IV.

A suspicious uncharitable spirit is not only inconsistent with all social virtue and happiness, but it is also, in itself, unreasonable and unjust.—Blair.

Any man who attends to what passes within himself, may easily discern that the human character is a very complicated system.—Id.

Among the vicious, friendship is coeval only with mutual satisfaction.—Allen.

Pitch upon that course of life which is the most excellent, and custom will render it the most delightful.—Blair.

No worldly enjoyments are adequate to the high desires and powers of an immortal spirit.—Id.

The mighty tempest, and the hoary waste,
Abrupt and deep, stretch'd o'er the buried earth,
Awake to solemn thought.—Thomson.

The gaudy, babbling, and remorseful day Is crept into the bosom of the sea.—Shak.

LESSON V .--- RULE V.

The chief misfortunes that befall us in life, can be traced to some vices or follies which we have committed.

The Psalms of David present religion to us, in the most engaging dress; communicating truths which philosophy could never investigate, in a style which poetry can never equal. He who has once tasted their excellencies, will desire to taste them again; and he who tastes them oftenest, will relish them best.—Horne.

'Hassan,' said the caliph, 'what canst thou have lost, whose wealth was the labour of thy own hand; and what can have made thee sad, the spring of whose joy was in thy own bosom?'—Hawkesworth.

He that has light within his own clear breast,
May sit in the centre, and enjoy bright day:
But he that hides a dark soul and foul thoughts,
Benighted walks under the mid-day sun.—Milton.

LESSON VI.-RULE V.

There is a simplicity in the words, which outshines the utmost pride of expression.—Addison.

He that can please nobody, is not so much to be pitied, as

he that nobody can please.

The meeting was so respectable, that the propriety of its decision can hardly be questioned.

God is on the side of virtue; for whoever dreads punishment, suffers it; and whoever deserves it, dreads it.—Lacon.

Every society has a right to prescribe for itself the terms

on which its members shall be admitted.

We never, in a moral way, applaud or blame either ourselves or others for what we enjoy or what we suffer; or for having impressions made upon us which we consider as being altogether out of our power: but only for what we do, or would have done had it been in our power; or for what we leave undone which we might have done, or would have left undone though we could have done it.—Bp. Butler.

Th' Egyptian crown I to your hands remit; And with it take his heart who offers it.—Shuk.

LESSON VII .-- RULE VI.

The clergy declared against any peace which would not give to their prelates a right to sit in parliament.

The fair sex, whose task is not to mingle in the labours of

public life, have their own part assigned them to act.

The committee, not depending on the royal favour, demanded the security of a legal and formal declaration of the rights they claimed.—Hist. of Ireland.

The English people showed that they were not insensible to

what was passing in Ireland.—Ibid.

The majority of the assembly were more consistent and temperate: they considered that to decline a cessation, would be to refute all their professions of loyalty.—Ibid.

By Wisdom tutor'd, Poetry exalts
Her voice to ages; and informs the page
With music, image, sentiment and thought;
Never to die! the treasure of mankind!
Their highest honour, and their purest joy!—Thomson.

LESSON VIII.-RULE VII.

Socrates and Plato were celebrated for their wisdom; they were the most eminent philosophers of Greece.—Murray.

And Pharaoh sent, and called for Moses and Aaron, and said unto them, "I have sinned this time; the Lord is right-eous, and I and my people are wicked."—Bible.

Education, when it works upon a noble mind, draws out to view many latent virtues and perfections, which, without its aid, would never be able to make their appearance.

Honour thy father and mother, both in word and deed, that

a blessing may come upon thee from them.

How gladly would the man recall to life. The boy's neglected sire! a mother too, That softer friend, perhaps more gladly still, Might he demand them at the gates of death.—Comper.

LESSON IX.--RULE VIII.

Snow or ice, when it melts, absorbs heat and produces cold. A marsh overgrown with willows, or a mountain shaded with oaks, is not only more beautiful but more beneficial, than when [it is] naked and unadorned.—Addison.

Mark the effect of art upon a block of marble: how the skill of the polisher fetches out the colours, makes the surface shine, and discovers every ornamental cloud, spot, or vein, that runs through the body of it! What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to a human soul.—Id.

The moral system of nature, or natural religion, approves itself almost intuitively to a reasonable mind, upon seeing it proposed.—Bp. Butler.

The saint or moralist should tread
This moss-grown alley, musing, slow;
[He seeks,] like me, the secret shade,
But not, like me, to nourish wo.—Cowper.

LESSON X .--- RULE IX.

I perceive the difference; it is very obvious. Thou sayst thou dost not know where thou art. He does not like the office, and he begs to be excused. It seems she is disappointed, and no one pities her. We depend upon your assistance; for we need it. Do you recollect the words? I think they are these. They are found to be incorrect. Who knows them? I retired from the throng, and sat down to read. Bad as the world is, respect is always paid to virtue. He stood alone, and was scoffed by the profane crew. He endeavoured to escape, but they caught him. She has finished her work, and we have seen it. It has often been done in this way, and has succeeded. We had left the company, and we did not see him. You will be wanted at home; do not tarry. They will have returned to town; you will see them.

The seasons alter; hoary-headed frosts Fall in the fresh lap of the crimson rose.—Shak.

LESSON XI.-RULE IX.

Science may raise thee to eminence; but religion alone can guide thee to felicity.—Aikin.

If we would honour merit, we must not judge by appear-

ances: a visored villain may seem fair.

The laurels of the warrior must at all times be dyed in blood, and [be] bedewed with the tears of the widow and the orphan. Often are they stained by rapine and cruelty.

It might be expected, that humanity itself would prevent them

from breaking into the last retreat of the unfortunate.

He should consider often, who can choose but once.

She may have forgotten the occurrence.

They can not have been deceived, being eye-witnesses.

Thou must have made a mistake.

They might have had opportunity to have returned.
What could have induced him to act in that manner?
It would have been desirable to have had his company.

If her son had fallen, her latter days would have been rendered miserable: he was her only support.

Had we not been too hasty, we should have discovered these

men's secret intentions.

LESSON XII.-RULE IX.

If thine enemy be hungry, give him bread to eat; if he be thirsty, give him water to drink.—Prov., xxv, 21.

If thou duly respected thy teacher, he would never have occa-

sion to punish thee.

If the mind were left uncultivated, though nothing else should

find entrance, vice certainly would.—Blair.

Say not thou, 'I will recompense evil;' but wait on the Lord, and he shall save thee.—Prov., xx, 22.

Never indulge revenge to your own hurt.

Abstain from injuring others, if you wish to be in safety.

Do thou attend to this advice; be not too confident.

Do not waste your time; omit no opportunity of improvement: time lost is lost forever.

Be not discouraged; your wishes may yet be gratified.

Intemperance engenders disease, sloth produces poverty, pride creates disappointment, and dishonesty exposes to shame.

Loose conversation operates on the soul, as poison does or

the body.

LESSON XIII .- RULE IX.

A variety of pleasing objects, charms the eye.

Do not we all need assistance? Ought we, then, to withhold our aid from others? Charity is kind to all.

The narrative of his dangers and escapes is interesting.

Humility, as well as merit, engages esteem.

A sordid mind is incapable of friendship.—Kames.

Neither have I, nor has my partner, acceded to this request. The injuries we do, and those we suffer, are seldom weighed

in the same balance.

Why dost thou build the hall, son of the winged days? thou lookest from thy towers to-day; yet a few years, and the blast of the desert comes; it howls in thy empty court.—Ossian.

Light! from whose rays all beauty springs,
Darkness! whose wide-expanded wings
Involve the dusky globe,
Praise him who, when the heavens he spread,
Darkness his thick pavilion made,
And light his regal robe,—Merrick.

LESSON XIV .--- RULE X.

The generality of his hearers were favourable to his doctrines.—Allen.

The public are often deceived by false appearances and ex-

travagant pretensions.

A considerable number of the confederates were induced to abandon the counsels of the nuncio.—Hist. of Ireland.

Around Bethesda's healing wave,
Waiting to hear the rustling wing
Which spoke the angel nigh who gave
Its virtues to that holy spring,
With patience and with hope endued,
Were seen the gather'd multitude.—Anonymous.

LESSON XV .-- RULE XI.

Our good and evil proceed from ourselves. Sincerity and truth form the basis of every virtue. Riches, honours, and pleasures, steal away the heart from religion.

On some occasions, mildness and forbearance are more pow-

erful than vehemence and severity.

Virtue, diligence, and industry, joined with good temper and prudence, must ever be the surest means of prosperity.

Day and night yield us contrary blessings; and, at the same time, assist each other, by giving fresh lustre to the delights of both.—Melmoth.

For never any thing can be amiss, When simpleness and duty tender it.—Shak.

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour:

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.—Gray.

LESSON XVI .-- RULE XII.

Man's happiness or misery is, in a great measure, put into his own hands.—Blair.

When sickness, infirmity, or reverse of fortune, affects us, the sincerity of friendship is proved.

Neither his vote, his influence, nor his purse, was ever withheld from the cause in which he had engaged.

Has not sloth, or pride, or ill temper, or sinful passion, misled you from the path of sound and wise conduct?

Fools! who from hence into the notion fall, That vice or virtue there is none at all. If white and black blend, soften, and unite A thousand ways, is there no black or white?—Pope.

LESSON XVII.-RULE XIII.

Cheerfulness keeps up a kind of day-light in the mind, and fills it with a steady and perpetual serenity.—Addison.

King Solomon built a temple, and dedicated it to the Al-

mighty. - W. Allen.

The pleasures of sense resemble a foaming torrent; which, after a disorderly course, speedily runs out, and leaves an empty and offensive channel.—Blair.

Bursting into tears, she rose, and tore a lock from her hair;

a lock which waved o'er her heaving breast.—Ossian.

Loose, then, from earth the grasp of fond desire, Weigh anchor, and some happier clime explore.—Young.

LESSON XVIII.-RULE XIV.

He, stooping down and looking in, saw the linen clothes lying; yet went he not in.—John, xx, 5.

A man used to vicissitudes, is not easily dejected.

A habit of sincerity in acknowledging faults, is a guard against committing them.

This is a measure founded on justice, supported by precedent,

and warranted by necessity. - W. Allen.

The bounty displayed in the earth, equals the grandeur

manifested in the heavens.—Murray.

Sitting is the best posture for deliberation; standing, for persuasion: a judge, therefore, should speak sitting; a pleader, standing.

Having sold his patrimony, he engaged in merchandise.

Amaz'd I stood, harrow'd with grief and fear.—Milton.

Lips busy, and eyes fix'd, foot fulling slow, Arms hanging idly down, hands clasp'd below, Interpret to the marking eye distress, Such as its symptoms can alone express.—Cowper.

LESSON XIX.-RULE XV.

How soon man's earthly enjoyments pass away!—Allen. We naturally look with strong emotion to the spot, where the ashes of those we have loved, repose.—D. Webster.

[Veturia's] son's wife, Volumnia, who was sitting with her when the women arrived, and who was greatly surprised at their coming, hastily asked them the meaning of so extraordinary an appearance.—Hooke.

Virtue is bold, and goodness never fearful.—Shak.

The soul that sees Him, or receives, sublim'd,

New faculties, or learns at least t' employ

More worthily the powers she own'd before.—Cowper.

The canker galls the infants of the spring,

Too oft before their buttons be disclosed;

And, in the morn and liquid dew of youth,

Contagious blastments are most imminent.—Shak.

LESSON XX .-- RULE XVI.

Prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them.

If you desire to be free from sin, avoid temptation.

The ancient Russians believed, that their northern mountains

encompassed the globe.— W. Allen.

I disregard their importations, because I do not merit the

I disregard their imputations, because I do not merit them. A judge ought to be influenced only by reason and evidence.

Look! as I blow this feather from my face,
And as the air blows it to me again;
Obeying with my wind when I do blow,
And yielding to another when it blows;
Commanded always by the greater gust:
Such is the lightness of you common men.—Shak.

But thou, who ownst that earthy bed,
Ah! what will every dirge avail?
Or tears, which Love and Pity shed,
That mourn beneath the gliding sail!—Collins.

LESSON XXI.-RULE XVII.

Most of the troubles which we meet with in the world, arise

from an irritable temper, or from improper conduct.

The want of regularity in the management of our affairs, very often prevents the successful accomplishment of those undertakings in which our fortune, comfort, and happiness, are involved.

By the faults of others, wise men learn to correct their own.

O momentary grace of mortal men,
Which we more hunt for than the grace of God!
Who builds his hopes in air of your fair looks,
Lives like a drunken sailor on a mast;
Ready, with ev'ry nod, to tumble down
Into the fatal bowels of the deep.—Shakspeare.
Thou art the source and centre of all minds,
Their only point of rest, eternal Word!
From thee departing, they are lost, and rove
At readom, without honour, hope, or peace.—Comper.

LESSON XXII.-RULE XVIII.

At that hour, O how vain was all sublunary happiness!

Alas, said I, man was made in vain! how is he given away to misery and mortality!—Addison.

O stretch thy reign, fair Peace, from shore to shore, Till conquest cease, and slavery be no more!—Pope.

O Nature, how in every charm supreme!
Whose votaries feast on raptures ever new!
O for the voice and fire of seraphim,
To sing thy glories with devotion due!—Beattie.

Hail! wedded love!—
Perpetual fountain of domestic sweets!—Milton.

LESSON XXIII .-- RULE XIX.

Charles's resignation filled all Europe with astonishment. Stately are his steps of age! lovely the remnant of his years! A crown of glory are his hoary locks!

Joy rose in Carthon's face: he lifted his heavy eyes.

Eliza's sensibility is such, that her brother's misfortunes will greatly afflict her.

A dutiful son will hear his father's instructions.

What is the bigot's torch, the tyrant's chain? I smile on death, if heaven-ward hope remain.—Campbell.

Ye thrones, dominions, virtues, powers.
Join ye your joyful song with ours,
With us your voices raise;
From age to age extend the lay,
To heaven's eternal monarch pay
Hymns of eternal praise.—Merrick.

LESSON XXIV .- RULE XX.

Do not insult a poor man: his misery entitles him to pity. When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves that we leave them.

While riotous indulgence enervates both the body and the mind, purity and virtue heighten all the powers of human fruition.

What avails the show of external liberty, to one who has lost the government of himself?

Princes have but their titles for their glories, An outward honour for an inward toil; And, for unfelt imaginations, They often feel a world of restless cares.—Shak. No flocks that range the valley, free, To slaughter I condemn: Taught by that power that pities me, I learn to pity them.—Goldsmith.

LESSON XXV .-- RULE XXL

The memory of mischief is no desirable fame. Virtue is the surest road to happiness. Solid merit is a cure for ambition.

Meekness and modesty are true and lasting ornaments.

Universal benevolence and patriotic zeal appear to have been the motives of all his actions.

Soon after his father's demise, he was crowned *emperor*. We, who never were his *favourites*, did not expect these

attentions; and we could scarcely believe it was he.

Junius Brutus, the son of Marcus Brutus, and Collatinus, the

husband of Lucretia, were chosen first consuls in Rome.

The son, bred in sloth, becomes a spendthrift, a profligate, and goes out of the world a beggar.—Swift.

I am, as thou art, a reptile of the earth: my life is a moment, and eternity—in which days, and years, and ages, are nothing—eternity is before me, for which I also should prepare.—Hawkesworth.

The Lord of all, himself through all diffused, Sustains, and is the *life* of all that lives. Nature is but a *name* for an effect Whose cause is *God.—Cowper*.

LESSON XXVI.-RULE XXII.

Titles of honour conferred upon those who have no personal merit, are like the royal stamp set upon base metal.

In the varieties of life, we are inured to habits both of the active and the suffering virtues.—Blair.

By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed.—Blair.

In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth.

There is none like unto the God of Jeshurun, who rideth upon the heaven in thy help, and in his excellency on the sky.—Deut., xxxiii, 26.

For the kingdom of God is not in word, but in power. In the death of a man there is no remedy.—Bible. In every region the book of nature is open before us.

Ah! who can tell the triumphs of the mind, By truth illumin'd and by taste refin'd?—Rogers.

LESSON XXVII.-RULE XXIII.

Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.—Sterne.

Our ambassadors are instructed to negotiate a peace; and

there is reason to think they will succeed.

I shall henceforth do good and avoid evil, without respect to the opinions of men; and resolve to solicit only the approbation of that Being, whom alone we are sure to please by endeavouring to please him.—Johnson.

Delightful task! to rear the tender thought,
To teach the young idea how to shoot,
To pour the fresh instruction o'er the mind,
To breaths the enlivening spirit, and to fix
The generous purpose in the glowing breast.—Thomson.

LESSON XXVIII.-RULE XXIV.

You need not go. I heard my father bid the boy bring your trunk, and saw him go for it. I dare say it will be safe.

Let him who desires to see others happy, make haste to give

while his gift can be enjoyed.—Blair.

None but the virtuous dare hope in bad circumstances.

Thy Hector, wrapp'd in everlasting sleep,
Shall neither hear thee cry, nor see thee weep.—Pope.
Ye headlong torrents, rapid and profound;

Ye softer floods, that lead the humid maze Along the vale; and thou majestic main,

A secret world of wonders in thyself; Sound His stupendous praise, whose greater voice Or bids you roar, or bids your roarings fall.—Thomson.

LESSON XXIX .-- RULE XXV.

This proposition being admitted, I now state my argument. There being much obscurity in the case, he refuses to decide upon it.

They being absent, we cannot come to a determination.

The senate consented to the creation of tribunes of the people, *Appius* alone protesting against the measure.

Fathers! Senators of Rome! the arbiters of nations! to you

I fly for refuge.— Tr. of Sallust.

Remember, Almet, that the world in which thou art placed, is but the road to an other.—Hawkesworth.

Return, my son, to thy labour: thy food shall again be tasteful, and thy rest shall be sweet.—Johnson.

CHAP. I.] SYNTAX.—PARSING.—PRAXIS VII.

Ingratitude! thou marble-hearted fiend,
More hideous when thou showst thee in a child,
Than the sea-monster!—Shakspeare.

O wretched we! why were we hurried down This lubric and adulterate age!—Dryden.

LESSON XXX.--RULE XXV.

What misery doth the vicious man secretly endure! Adversity! how blunt are all the arrows of thy quiver, in comparison with those of guilt.—Blair.

Remember the uncertainty of life, and restrain thy hand from evil. He that was yesterday a king; behold him dead,

and the beggar is better than he.—Bible.

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day, Had he thy reason, would he skip and play?—Pope.

Hail! mildly pleasing Solitude, Companion of the wise and good.

All this dread order break—for whom? for thee? Vile worm!—Oh madness! pride! impiety!—Pope.

My Absalom! the voice of nature cried,
Oh! that for thee thy father could have died!
For bloody was the deed, and rashly done,
That slew my Absalom!—my son!—my son!—Campbell.

LESSON XXXI.-RULE XXVI.

Though hand join in hand, the wicked shall not be unpunished.—Prov., xi, 21.

Let him that hastens to be rich, take heed lest he suddenly become poor.

If the king were present, Cleon, there would be no need of my answering to what thou hast just proposed.—Goldsmith.

He seems to have made an injudicious choice, though he is esteemed a sensible man.

Inspiring thought, of rapture yet to be! The tears of love were hopeless but for thee! If in that frame no deathless spirit dwell, If that faint murmur be the last farewell, If fate unite the faithful but to part, Why is their mem'ry sacred to the heart?—Campbell.

CHAPTER IL—RELATION AND AGREEMENT.

In this chapter and the next, the Rules of Syntax are again exhibited, in their former order, with Examples, Exceptions, Observations, Notes, and False Syntax. The Notes are all of them, in form and character, subordinate rules of syntax, designed for the detection of errors. The correction of the False Syntax placed under the rules and notes, will form an oral exercise, somewhat similar to that of parsing, and perhaps more useful.

Oss.—Relation and Agreement are taken together that the rules may stand in the order of the parts of speech. The latter is moreover naturally allied to the former. Seven of the ten parts of speech are, with a few exceptions, incapable of any agreement; of these, the relation and use must be explained in parsing; and all necessary agreement between any of the rest, is confined to words that relate to each other.

RULE I.—ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the nouns which they limit: as, "At a little distance from the ruins of the abbey. stands an aged elm."

EXCEPTION FIRST.

The definite article, used intensively, may relate to an adjective or adverb of the comparative or the superlative degree; as, "A land which was the mightiest."—Byron. "The farther they proceeded, the greater appeared their alsority."—Dr. Johnson. "He chooses it the rather."—Cooper. [See Obs. 7th, next page.]

EXCEPTION SECOND.

The indefinite article is sometimes used to give a collective meaning to an adjective of number; as, "Thou hast a few names, even in Sardis."—Rev. "There are a thousand things which crowd into my memory."—Spectator, No. 468. [See Obs. 12th, next page.]

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE I.

Oss. 1.—Articles often relate to nouns understood; as, "The [river] Thames,"—"Pliny the younger" [man],—"The honourable [body], the Legislature,"—"The animal [world] and the vegetable world,"—"Neither to the right [hand] nor to the left" [hand].—Bible. "He was a good man, and a just" [man].—Ib. "The pride of swains Palemon was, the generous [man], and the rich" [man].—Thomson.

Obs. 2.—It is not always necessary to repeat the article before several nouns in the same construction: the same article serves sometimes to limit the signification of more than are sometimed to the same article serves.

nification of more than one noun; but we doubt the propriety of ever con-

struing two articles as relating to one and the same noun.

Oss. 3.—The article proceeds its noun, and is never, by itself, placed after it; as, "Passion is the drunkenness of the mind."—Southey.

Oss. 4.—When an adjective precedes the noun, the article is placed before the adjective, that its power may extend over that also; as,

"The private path, the secret acts of men,
If noble, far the noblest of their lives."—Young.

Except the adjectives all, such, many, what, both, and those which are preceded by the adverbs too, so, as, or how; as, "All the materials were bought at too dear a rate."—"Like many an other poor wretch, I now suffer all the ill consequences of so foolish an indulgence."

Oss. 6.—When the adjective is placed after the noun, the article generally retains its place before the noun, and is not repeated before the adjective; as, "A man ignorant of astronomy."—"The primrose pale." In Greek, when an adjective is placed after its noun, if the article is prefixed to the noun, it is repeated before the adjective; as, "H $\pi \delta \lambda \iota s$ $h \mu \epsilon \gamma \delta \lambda \eta$, The city the great; i. e.,

The great city.

Oss. 6.—Articles, according to their own definition, belong before their nouns; but the definite article and an adjective seem sometimes to be placed after the noun to which they both relate: as, "Section the Fourth,"—"Henry the Eighth." Such examples, however, may be supposed elliptical, and, if they are so, the article, in *English*, can never be placed after its noun, nor can two articles ever properly relate to one noun, in any particular construc-

tion of it.

Oss. 7.—The definite article is often prefixed to comparatives and superlatives; and its effect is, as Murray observes, (in the words of Lowth,) "to mark the degree the more strongly, and to define it the more precisely:" as, "The oftener I see him, the more I respect him."—"A constitution the most fit."—"A claim, the strongest, and the most easily comprehended."—"The men the most difficult to be replaced." In these instances, the article seems to be need admentally and to relate only to the adistring or adverted following to be used adverbially, and to relate only to the adjective or adverb following it; but after the adjective, the noun may be supplied.

One. 8.—The article the is applied to nouns of both numbers; as, The man,

the men; —The good boy, the good boys.

Ons. 9.—The article the is generally prefixed to adjectives that are used, by ellipsis, as nouns; as,

"The great, the gay, shall they partake
The heav'n that thou alone canst make !"—Couper.

Obs. 10.—The article the is sometimes elegantly used in stead of a possessive pronoun; as, "Men who have not bowed the knee to the image of Baal."--Rom., xi, 4.

Obs. 11.—An or a implies one, and belongs to nouns of the singular num-

ber only; ss, A man, a good boy.

Obs. 12.—An or a inspires one, and belongs to noting of the singular number only; ss, A man, a good boy.

Obs. 12.—An or a is sometimes put before an adjective of number, when the noun following is plural; as, "A few days,"—"A hundred sheep,"—
"There are a great many adjectives."—Dr. Adam. In these cases, the article seems to relate only to the adjective. Some grammarians however call these words of number nouns, and suppose an ellipsis of the preposition of.

Murray and many others call them adjectives, and suppose a peculiarity of construction in the acticle. construction in the article.

OBS. 13.—An or a has sometimes the import of each or every; as, "He came twice a year." The article in this sense with a preposition understood,

came twice a year." The article in this sense with a preposition understood, is preferable to the mercantile per, so frequently used; as, "Fifty cents [for] a bushel,"—rather than, "per bushel."

Obs. 14.—A, as prefixed to participles in ing, or used in composition, is a preposition; being, probably, the French a, signifying to, at, on, in, or of; as, "They burst out a laughing."—M. Edgeworth. "He is gone a hunting."—"She lies a-bed all day."—"He stays out a-nights."—"They ride out a-Sundays." Shakepeare often uses the prefix a, and sometimes in a manner peculiar to himself; as, "Tom's a cold,"—"a weary."

Obs. 15.—An is sometimes a conjunction, signifying if; as,

"Nay, an thou'lt mouthe, I'll rant as well as thou."—Shak.

NOTES TO RULE I.

Note I.—When the indefinite article is required, a should always be used before the sound of a consonant, and an, before that of a vowel; as, "With the talents of an angel, a man may be a fool."—Young.

Obs.—An was formerly used before all words beginning with h, and before several other words which are now pronounced in such a manner as to require a: thus, we read in the Bible, "An house,"—"an hundred,"—"an one,"—"an ewer,"—"an usurer."

Note II.—When nouns are joined in construction, without a close connexion and common dependence, the article must be repeated. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate: "She never considered the quality, but merit of her visitors."

—Wm. Penn. The should be inserted before merit.

Note III.—When adjectives are connected, and the qualities belong to things individually different, though of the same name, the article should be repeated: as, "A black and a white horse;"—i. e., two horses, one black and the other white.

Note IV.—When adjectives are connected, and the qualities all belong to the same thing or things, the article should not be repeated: as, "A black and white horse;"—i. e., one horse, piebald.

Obs. 1.—The reason of the two preceding notes is this: by a repetition of the article before several adjectives in the same construction, a repetition of the noun is implied; but without a repetition of the article, the adjectives are confined to one and the same noun.

obs. 2.—To avoid repetition, we sometimes, with one article, join inconsistent qualities to a plural noun; as, "The Old and New Testaments,"—for, "The Old and the New Testament." But the phrases, "The Old and New Testament," and, "The Old and the New Testament," are both obviously incorrect.

Note V.—The article should not be used before the names of virtues, vices, passions, arts, or sciences; before simple proper names; or before any noun whose signification is sufficiently definite without it: as, "Falsehood is odious."—"Iron is useful."—"Beauty is vain."

Note VI.—When titles are mentioned merely as titles, or names of things merely as names or words, the article should not be used; as, "He is styled *Marquis*."—"Ought a teacher

to call his pupil Master?"

Note VII.—In expressing a comparison, if both nouns refer to the same subject, the article should not be inserted; if to different subjects, it should not be omitted: thus, if we say, "He is a better teacher than poet," we compare different qualifications of the same man; but if we say, "He is a better teacher than a poet," we refer to different men.

Note VIII.—The definite article, or some other definitive, is generally required before the antecedent to the pronoun who or which in a restrictive clause; as, "The men who were pres-

ent. consented."

Note IX.—The article is generally required in that construction which converts a participle into a verbal noun; as, "The completing of this, by the working-out of sin inherent, must be by the power and spirit of Christ, in the heart."-"They shall be an abhorring unto all flesh."-Wm. Penn. Isaiah, lxvi, 24.

Note X.—The article should not be prefixed to a participle that is not taken in all respects as a noun; as, "He made a

mistake in the giving out the text." Expunge the.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE I.—ARTICLES.

[The Examples of False Syntax placed under the rules, are to be corrected orally by the pupil, according to the formules given, or according to others framed in like manner, and adapted to the several notes.]

Examples under Note 1.—AN or A.

He went into an house.

[Formule.—Not proper, because the article an is used before house, which begins with the sound of the consonant h. But, according to Note 1st under Rule 1st, "When the indefinite article is required, a should always be used before the sound of a consonant, and an before that of a vowel." Therefore, an should be a; thus, He went into a house.]

This is an hard saying.

A humble heart shall find favour.

Passing from an earthly to an heavenly diadem.

Few have the happiness of living with such an one,

She evinced an uniform adherence to the truth.

A hospital is an asylum for the sick.

This is truly an wonderful invention.

He is an younger man than we supposed.

An humorsome child is never long pleased.

A careless man is unfit for a hostler.

Under Note 2.—Nouns Connected.

Avoid rude sports: an eye is soon lost, or bone broken. As the drop of the bucket and dust of the balance. Not a word was uttered, nor sign given. I despise not the doer, but deed.

Under Note 3.—Adjectives Connected.

What is the difference between the old and new method? The sixth and tenth have a close resemblance.

Is Paris on the right hand or left?

Does Peru join the Atlantic or Pacific ocean?

He was influenced both by a just and generous principle.

The book was read by the old and young.

I have both the large and small grammar.

Are both the north and south line measured?

Are the north line and south both measured? Are both the north and south lines measured? Are both the north lines and south measured?

Under Note 4.—Adjectives Connected.

Is the north and the south line measured?
Are the two north and the south lines both measured?
A great and a good man looks beyond time.
They made but a weak and an ineffectual resistance.
The Allegany and the Monongahela rivers form the Ohio.
I rejoice that there is an other and a better world.
Were God to raise up an other such a man as Moses.
The light and the worthless kernels will float.

Under Note 5.—Articles not Requisite.

Cleon was an other sort of a man.

There is a species of an animal called a seal.

Let us wait in the patience and the quietness.

The contemplative mind delights in the silence.

Arithmetic is a branch of the mathematics.

You will never have an other such a chance.

I expected some such an answer.

And I persecuted this way unto the death.

Under Note 6.—Titles and Names.

He is entitled to the appellation of a gentleman.

Cromwell assumed the title of a Protector.

Her father is honoured with the title of an Earl.

The chief magistrate is styled a President.

The highest title in the state is that of the Governor.

"For the oak, the pine, and the ash, were names of whole classes of objects."—Blair's Rhetoric, p. 73.

Under Note 7.—Comparisons.

He is a better writer than a reader. He was an abler mathematician than a linguist. I should rather have an orange than apple.

Under Note 8 .- Nouns with Who or Which.

Words which are signs of complex ideas, are liable to be misunderstood.

Carriages which were formerly in use, were very clumsy.

The place is not mentioned by geographers who wrote at that time.

Under Note 9.—Participial Nouns.

Means are always necessary to accomplishing of ends. By seeing of the eye, and hearing of the ear, learn wisdom. In keeping of his commandments, there is great reward. For revealing of a secret, there is no remedy. Have you no repugnance to torturing of animals?

Under Note 10.—Participles, not Nouns.

By the breaking the law, you dishonour the lawgiver. An argument so weak is not worth the mentioning. In the letting go our hope, we let all go. Avoid the talking too much of your ancestors. The cuckoo keeps the repeating her unvaried notes. Forbear the boasting of what you can do.

RULE II.--NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or a Pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb. must be in the nominative case: as,

"I know thou sayst it: says thy life the same?"—Young.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE II.

One. 1.—To this rule there are no exceptions. And in connected language, every nominative stands as the subject of some verb expressed or understood; except such as are put in apposition with other nominatives, according to Rule 3d—after a verb, according to Rule 21st—or absolute, according

One. 2.—The subject, or nominative, is generally placed before the verb; as, "Peace danned upon his mind."—Johnson. "What is written in the law!"—Bible.

Obs. 8.—But, in the following nine cases, the subject is usually placed after the verb, or after the first auxiliary :-

1. When a question is asked, without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; as, "Shall mortals be implacable?"—" What art thou

doing I'—Hooke.

2. When the verb is in the imperative mood; as, "Go thou."

3. When an earnest wish, or other strong feeling is expressed; as, "May she be happy!"—"How were we struck I'—Young.

4. When a supposition is made without a conjunction; as, "Were it true,

it would not injure us."

5. When neither or nor, signifying and not, precedes the verb; as, "This was his fear; nor was his apprehension groundless."
6. When, for the sake of emphasis, some word or words are placed before the verb, which more naturally come after it; as, "Here am I."—"Narrow is the way."—"Silver and gold have Inone; but such as I have, give I thee."

7. When the verb has no regimen, and is itself emphatical; as, "Echo the mountains round."—Thomson.

8. When the verbs say, think, reply, and the like, introduce the parts of a dialogue; as, "Son of affliction,' said Omar, 'who art thou?' 'My name,' replied the stranger, 'is Hassan.'"—Johnson.

9. When the adverb there precedes the verb; as, "There lived a man."—Montg. "In all worldly joys, there is a secret wound."—Oven.

INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. [PART III.

ALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE IL-NOMINATIVES.

Thee must have been idle.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the objective pronoun these is made the subject of the verb must have been. But, according to Rule 2d, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case," Therefore, these should be thou; thus, Thou must have been idle,]

Him that is studious, will improve.

Them that seek wisdom, will be wise.

She and me are of the same age.

You are two or three years older than us.

Are not John and thee cousins?

I can write as handsomely as thee.

Nobody said so but him.

Whom dost thou think was there?

Who broke this slate? Me.

We are alone; here's none but thee and I.—Shak.

Them that honour me, I will honour; and them that despise me, shall be lightly esteemed.

He whom in that instance was deceived, is a man of sound judgement.

RULE III.—APPOSITION.

A Noun or a personal Pronoun used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case: as.

"But he, our gracious Master, kind as just, Knowing our frame, remembers we are dust."—Barbauld.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE III.

Obs. 1.—Apposition is the using of different words or appellations, to designate the same thing. Apposition also denotes the relation which exists between the words which are so employed. In parsing, rule third should be applied only to the explanatory term; because the case of the principal term depends on its relation to the rest of the sentence, and comes under some other rule.

Obs. 2.—To this rule, there are properly no exceptions. But there are many puzzling examples under it, which the following observations are designed to explain. The rule supposes the first word to be the principal term, with which the other is in apposition; and it generally is so: but the explanatory word is sometimes placed first, especially among the poets; as,

"From bright'ning fields of ether fair disclos'd, Child of the sun, refulgent Summer comes."—Thomson.

Oss. 3.—The pronouns of the first and second persons are often prefixed to nouns, merely to distinguish their person; as, "I John saw these things."—
"This is the stone which was set at nought of you builders."—Bible. "His praise, ye brooks, attune."—Thomson. In this case of apposition, the words are closely united, and either of them may be taken as the explanatory term: the learner will find it easier to parse the noun by rule third.

Oss. 4.—When two or more nouns of the possessive case are put in apposition, the possessive termination added to one, denotes the case of both or all: as, "His brother Philip's wife;"—"John the Baptist's head;"—"At my

friend Johnson's, the bookseller." By a repetition of the possessive sign, a distinct governing noun is implied, and the apposition is destroyed.

Obs. 5.—In like manner, a noun without the possessive sign, is sometimes at in apposition with a pronoun of the possessive case; as, "As an author, put in apposition with a pronoun of the possessive case; as, his 'Adventurer' is his capital work."—Murray.

"Thus shall mankind his guardian care engage, The promised father of the future age."—Pope.

One. 6.—When a noun or a pronoun is repeated for the sake of emphasis, the word which is repeated, may properly be said to be in apposition with that which is first introduced; as, "They have forsaken ms, the Fountain of living waters, and hewed them out cisterns, broken cisterns, that can hold no water."—fer., ii, 13.

Oss. 7.—A noun is sometimes put in apposition to a sentence; as, "He

permitted me to consult his library—a kindness which I shall not forget."—
W. Allen.

W. Allen.

Obs. 8.—A distributive term in the singular number, is frequently construed in apposition with a comprehensive plural; as, "They reap vanity, every one with his neighbour."—Bible. "Go ye every man unto his city."—Bid. And sometimes a plural word is emphatically put after a series of particulars comprehended under it; as, "Ambition, interest, honour, all concurred."—Murray. "Royalists, republicans, churchmen, sectaries, courtiers, patriots, all parties concurred in the illusion."—Hume.

Obs. 9.—To express a reciprocal action or relation, the pronominal adjectives each other and one an other are employed: as, "They love each other," —"They love one an other." The words, separately considered, are singular; but, taken together, they imply plurality; and they can be properly construed only after plurals, or singulars taken conjointly. Each other is usually applied to two objects; and one an other, to more than two. The terms, though reciprocal, and closely united, are never in the same construction. If such expressions be analyzed, each and one will generally appear to be in the nomexpressions be analyzed, each and one will generally appear to be in the nominative case, and other in the objective; as, "They love each other," i. e., each loves the other. Each is properly in apposition with they, and other is each loves the other. Each is properly in apposition with they, and other is governed by the verb. The terms, however, admit of other constructions; as, "Be ye helpers one of an other."—Bible. Here one is in apposition with ye, and other is governed by of. "Ye are one an other's joy."—Ib. Here one is in apposition with ye, and other's is in the possessive case, being governed by joy. "Love will make you one an other's joy." Here one is in the objective case, being in apposition with you, and other's is governed as before. The Latin terms alius alium, alii alios, &c., sufficiently confirm this doctrine.

One. 10.—The common and the proper name of an object are often associated, and put in apposition; as, The river Thames,—The ship Albion,—The poet Cowper,—Lake Erie,—Cape May,—Mount Atlas. But the proper name of a place, when accompanied by the common name, is generally put in the objective case, and preceded by of; as, The city of New York,—The land of Canaan.

land of Canaan.

One. 11.—The several proper names—which distinguish an individual, are always in apposition, and should be taken together in parsing; as, William

Pitt, Marous Tullius Cicero.
Ons. 12.—When an object acquires a new name or character from the action of a verb, the new appellation is put in apposition with the object of the active verb, and in the nominative after the passive: as, "They named the child John;"—"The child was named John."—"They elected him president;"—"He was elected president." After the active verb, the acquired name must be parsed by Rule 8d; after the passive, by Rule 21st.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE III.—APPOSITION.

I have received a letter from my cousin, she that was here last week.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the nominative pronoun she is used to explain the objective noun cousin. But, according to Rule 8d, "A noun or a personal pronoun

used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case." Therefore, she should be her; thus, I have received a letter from my cousin, her that was here last week.]

The book is a present from my brother Richard, he that keeps the bookstore.

I am going to see my friends in the country, they that we met at the ferry.

This dress was made by Catharine, the milliner, she that we saw at work.

Dennis, the gardener, him that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

Resolve me, why the cottager and king, Him whom sea-sever'd realms obey, and him Who steals his whole dominion from the waste, Repelling winter blasts with mud and straw. Disquieted alike, draw sigh for sigh.

RULE IV.—ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns: as, "He is a wise man, though he is young."

EXCEPTION FIRST.

An adjective sometimes relates to a phrase or sentence which is made the subject of an intervening verb; as, "To insult the afflicted, is impious."—Dillwyn. "That he should refuse, is not strange."

EXCEPTION SECOND.

With an infinitive or a participle denoting being or action in the abstract, an adjective is sometimes also taken abstractly; (that is, without reference to any particular noun, pronoun, or other subject;) as, "To be eincere, is to be wise, innocent, and safe."—Hawkesworth "Capacity marks the abstract quality of being able to receive or hold."—Crabb's Synonymes.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE IV.

Obs. 1.—Adjectives often relate to nouns understood; as, "The nine" [muses].—"Philip was one of the seven" [deacons].—Acts, xxi, 8. "He came unto his own [possessions], and his own [men] received him not."—John, i, 11. "The Lord your God is God of gods, and Lord of lords, a great God, a mighty [God], and a terrible" [God].—Deut., x, 17.
Oss. 2.—In as much as qualities belong only to things, most grammarians teach that every adjective belongs to some noun expressed or understood; and suppose a countless number of unnecessary ellipses. But it is evident that in the construction of sentences, adjectives often relate immediately to pronouns, and, through them, to the nouns they represent. This is still more obviously the case, in some other languages, as may be seen by the following examples, which retain something of the Greek idiom: "All ye are brethren."—Matt., xxiii, 8. "Whether of them twain did the will of his father?"—Matt., xxii, 31.

father?"—Matt., xxiii, 8. "Whether of them warn and the win of his father?"—Matt., xxi, 31.

Obs. 8.—When an adjective follows a finite verb, and is not followed by a noun, it generally relates to the subject of the verb; as, "I am glad that the door is made wide."—"Every thing which is false, vicious, or unworthy, is despicable to him, though all the world should approve it."—Spectator, No.

Here false, vicious, and unworthy, relate to which; and despicable relates

OBS. 4.--When an adjective follows an infinitive or a participle, the noun or pronoun to which it relates, is sometimes before it, and sometimes after or pronoun to which it relates, is sometimes before it, and sometimes artit and often considerably remote; as, "A real gentleman cannot but practise those virtues which, by an intimate knowledge of mankind, he has found to be useful to them."—"He [a melancholy enthusiast] thinks himself obliged in duty to be sad and disconsolate."—Addison. "He is scandalized at youth for being lively, and at childhood for being playful."—Id. "But growing weary of one who almost walked him out of breath, he left him for Horace and Anacreon."—Skeele.

One of Addictions proceeded by the definite article are after used by

Oss. 5.—Adjectives preceded by the definite article, are often used, by ellipsis, as having the force of nouns. They designate those classes of objects which are characterized by the qualities they express; and, in parsing, the noun may be supplied. They are most commonly of the plural number, and refer to persons, places, or things, understood; as, "The careless [persons] and the imprudent, the giddy and the fickle, the ungrateful and the interested

everywhere meet us."—Blair.

"Together let us beat this ample field,

Try what the open [places], what the covert, yield."-Pope.

Ons. 6.—The adjective is generally placed immediately before its noun; as,

"Vain man! is grandeur given to gay attire?"—Beattie.

Obs. 7.—Those adjectives which relate to pronouns most commonly follow them; as, "They left me weary on a grassy turf."—Milton.

Obs. 8.—In the following instances, the adjective is placed after the noun

to which it relates:

When other words depend on the adjective; as, "A mind conscious of right," A wall three feet thick."
 When the quality results from the action of a verb; as, "Virtue renders

2. When the quanty results from the scaon of a verb, a., "Indeed the hoppy."

3. When the adjective would thus be more clearly distinctive; as, "Goodness infinite,"—" Wisdom unsearchable."

4. When a verb comes between the adjective and the noun; as, "Truth stands independent of all external things."—Burgh.

Obs. 9.—In some cases, the adjective may either precede or follow the

noun; as,

1. In poetry; as,

"Wilt thou to the isles Atlantic, to the rich Hesperian clime, Fly in the train of Autumn?"—Akenside.

2. In some technical expressions; as, "A notary public," or, "A public

notary."

8. When an adverb precedes the adjective; as, "A Being infinitely wise,"

"An infinitely wise Being."

4. When several adjectives belong to the same noun; as, "A woman, modest, sensible, and virtuous," or, "A modest, sensible, and virtuous wo-

Ons. 10.—An emphatic adjective may be placed first in the sentence, though it belong after the verb; as, "Weighty is the anger of the righteous."—

Oss. 11.—By an ellipsis of the noun, an adjective with a preposition before it, is sometimes equivalent to an adverb; as, "In particular," that is, in a particular manner; equivalent to "particularly." In parsing, supply the ellipsis. [See Obs. 2d, under Rule xxii.]

NOTES TO RULE IV.

Note I.—Adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with their nouns in number; as, That sort, those sorts.

Note II.—When the adjective is necessarily plural, or neces-

sarily singular, the noun should be made so too; as, "Twenty pounds,"-not, "Twenty pound;"-"One session,"-not, "One sessions."

Oss. 1.—In some peculiar phrases, this rule appears to be disregarded; as, "Two hundred pennyworth of bread is not sufficient."—John, vi, 7. "Twenty sail of vessels;"—"A hundred head of cattle."

One 2.—To denote a collective number, a singular adjective may precede a plural one; as, "One hundred men,"—"Every six weeks,"—"One seven times."—Dan., iii, 19.
One, 3.—To denote plurality, the adjective many may, in like manner, precede an or a with a singular noun; as,

"Full many a flower is born to blush unseen, And waste its sweetness on the desert air."—Gray.

Note III -The reciprocal expression, one an other, should not be applied to two objects, nor each other, or one the other, to more than two: because reciprocity between two is some act or relation of each or one to the other, an object definite, and not of one to an other, which is indefinite; but reciprocity among three or more is of one, each, or every one, not to one other solely, or the other definitely, but to others, a plurality, or to an other, taken indefinitely and implying this plurality.

Note IV.—The comparative degree can only be used in reference to two objects, or classes of objects; the superlative compares one or more things with all others of the same class. whether few or many: as, "Edward is taller than James; he

is the *largest* of my scholars."

Note V.—When the comparative degree is employed, the latter term of comparison should never include the former; as. "Iron is more useful than all the metals." It should be, "than all the other metals."

Note VI.—When the superlative degree is employed, the latter term of comparison should never exclude the former; as, "A fondness for show, is, of all other follies, the most vain."

The word other should be expunged.

Note VII.—Comparative terminations, and adverbs of degree, should not be applied to adjectives that are not susceptible of comparison; and all double comparatives and double super-latives should be avoided: as, "So universal a complaint:" say. "So general."-"Some less nobler plunder:" say, "less noble."—"The most straitest sect:" expunge most.

Note VIII.—When adjectives are connected by and, or, or nor, the shortest and simplest should in general be placed first;

as, "He is older and more respectable than his brother."

Note IX.—An adjective and its noun may be taken as a compound term, to which other adjectives may be prefixed. The most distinguishing quality should be expressed next to the noun: as, "A fine young man,"—not, "A young fine man,"

CHAP. II. SYNTAX.-RULE IV.-ADJECTIVES.

Note X.—In prose, the use of adjectives for adverbs, is improper: as, "He writes elegant;"—say, "elegantly."

Oss. 1.— In poetry, an adjective relating to the noun or pronoun, is some-times elegantly used in stead of an adverb qualifying the verb or participle; as, "To thee I bend the knee; to thee my thoughts Continual climb."—Thomson.

One. 2.—In order to determine, in difficult cases, whether an adjective or an adverb is required, the learner should carefully attend to the definitions of these parts of speech, and consider whether, in the case in question, quality or manner is to be expressed: if the former, an adjective is proper; if the latter, at adverb. The following examples will illustrate this point: "She looks cold;—she looks coldly on him."—"I sat silent;—I sat silently musing."—"Stand firm;—maintain your cause firmly."

Note XI.—The pronoun them should never be used as an adjective in lieu of those: say, "I bought those books,"—not, "the books."

"there books." This is a vulgar error.

Neve XII.—When the pronominal adjectives, this and that, or these and those, are contrasted; this or these should represent the latter of the antecedent terms, and that or those, the former; 88,

"And, reason raise o'er instinct as you can, In this 'tis God directs, in that 'tis man."—Pope.

"Farewell my friends! farewell my foes! My peace with these, my love with those!"—Burns.

Note XIII.—The pronominal adjectives each, one, either, and neither, are always in the third person singular; and, when they are the leading words in their clauses, they require verbs and pronouns, to agree with them accordingly: as, "Each of you is entitled to his share."—" Let no one deceive himself."

Note XIV.—The pronominal adjectives either and neither relate to two things only; when more are referred to, any and none should be used in stead of them: as, "Any of the three;" -not, "Either of the three." -- "None of the four:" -- not. "Nei-

ther of the four."

Note XV.—Participial adjectives retain the termination, but not the government, of participles; when, therefore, they are followed by the objective case, a preposition must be inserted to govern it: as, "The man who is most sparing of his words, is generally most deserving of attention."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE IV .--- ADJECTIVES.

Examples under Note 1.—Of Agreement.

Those sort of people you will find to be troublesome.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the adjective those is in the plural number, and does not agree with its noun sort, which is singular. But, according to Note 1st under Rule 4th, "Adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with their nouns in number." Therefore, those should be that; thus, That sort of people you will find to be troublesome.]

"Twenty

efinite,

Things of these sort are easily understood,
Who broke that tongs?
Where did I drop this scissors?
Bring out that oats.
Extinguish that embers.
I disregard this minutise.
Those kind of injuries we need not fear.
What was the height of those gallows which Hama

Under Note 2 .- Of Fixed Numbers.

We rode about ten mile an hour.

Tis for a thousand pound.—Cowper.

How deep is the water? About six fathom.

The lot is twenty-five foot wide.

I have bought eight load of wood.

Under Note 3.—Of Reciprocals.

Two negatives in English destroy one another.—Lowish. That the heathens tolerated each other, is allowed. David and Jonathan loved one an other tenderly. Words are derived from each other in various ways. Teachers like to see their pupils polite to each other. The Graces always hold the one the other by the hand.

· Under Note 4 .-- Of Degrees.

He chose the latter of these three.

Trissyllables are often accented on the former syllable.

Which are the two more remarkable isthmuses in the world?

Under Note 5.—Of Comparatives.

The Scriptures are more valuable than any writings.

The Russian empire is more extensive than any government in the world.

Israel loved Joseph more than all his children, because he was the son of his old age.—Gen., xxxvii, 3.

Under Note 6 .- Of Superlatives.

Of all other ill habits idleness is the most incorrigible. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. Hope is the most constant of all the other passions.

Under Note 7 .- Extra Comparisons.

That opinion is too universal to be easily corrected. Virtue confers the supremest dignity upon man. How much more are ye better than the fowls!—Luke, xii.

Nore at thou hasten above the Most Highest.—Kedras, iv. proper: was the most unkindest cut of all.—Shakspeare.

Oss. L. vaters are more sooner and harder frozen. — Verstegan.

est and the most wisest men often meet with discourage-

Under Note 8.—Adjectives Connected.

of these parts owed us a more agreeable and easier way.

the late, a was the most convincing and plainest argument.

"She look a of the most moderate and wisest of the senators.

Non is an honourable and ancient fraternity.

Non re vice shall meet an irrevocable and fatal doom.

Under Note 9 .- Adjectives Prefixed.

He is a young industrious man.

She has a new elegant house.

The two first classes have read.

The oldest two sons have removed to the westward.

England had not seen such an other king.—Goldsmith.

Under Note 10 .- Adjectives for Adverbs.

She reads well and writes neat.

He was extreme prodigal.

They went, conformable to their engagement.

He speaks very fluent, and reasons justly.

The deepest streams run the most silent.

These appear to be finished the neatest.

He was scarce gone when you arrived.

I am exceeding sorry to hear of your misfortunes.

The work was uncommon well executed.

This is not such a large cargo as the last.

Thou knowst what a good horse mine is,

I cannot think so mean of him.

He acted much wiser than the others.

Under Note 11.—Them for Those.

I bought them books at a very low price.
Go and tell them boys to be still.
I have several copies: thou art welcome to them two.
Which of them three men is the most useful?

Under Note 12 .- This and That.

Hope is as strong an incentive to action, as fear: this is the anticipation of good, that of evil.

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Under Note 12 .- This and That.

Hope is as strong an incentive to action, as fear: this is the anticipation of good, that of evil.

me advantages which the rich enjoy; but we store account those happy, and these miserable. It and forecast just returns engage, nting back to youth, that on to age,

Under Note 13 .- Each, One, &c.

Let each of them be heard in their turn.

On the Lord's day every one of us Christians keep the sabbath.—Irenœus.

Are either of these men known?

No: neither of them have any connexions here.

Under Note 14.—Either and Neither.

Did either of the company stop to assist you? Here are six; but neither of them will answer.

Under Note 15.—Participial Adjectives.

Some crimes are thought deserving death. Rudeness of speech is very unbecoming a gentleman. To eat with unwashen hands, was disgusting a Jew.

> Leave then thy joys, unsuiting such an age, To a fresh comer, and resign the stage.—*Dryden*.

RULE V.—PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender: as, "This is the friend of whom I spoke; he has just arrived."—"This is the book which I bought; it is an excellent work."—"Ye, therefore, who love mercy, teach your sons to love it too."—Cowper.

EXCEPTION FIRST.

When a pronoun stands for some person or thing indefinite or unknown to the speaker, this rule is not strictly applicable; because the person, number, and gender, are rather assumed than regulated by an antecedent: as, "I do not care who knows it."—Steele. "Who touched me? Tell me who it was."

EXCEPTION SECOND.

The neuter pronoun it may be applied to a young child, or to other creatures masculine or feminine by nature, when they are not obviously distinguishable with regard to sex; as, "Which is the real friend to the child, the person who gives it the sweetmeats, or the person who, considering only its health, resists its importunities?"—Opic. "He loads the animal, he is showing me, with so many trappings and collars, that I cannot distinctly view it."—Murray. "The nightingale sings most sweetly when it sings in the night."—Burks.

EXCEPTION THIRD.

The pronoun it is often used without a definite reference to any antece-

dent, and is sometimes a mere expletive; as, "Whether she grapple if with the pride of philosophy."—Chalmers.

"Come, and trip it as you go
On the light fantastic toe."—Millon.

EXCEPTION FOURTH.

A singular antecedent with the adjective many, sometimes admits a plural pronoun, but never in the same clause; as,

> "In Hawick twinkled many a light, Behind him soon they set in night."- W. Scott.

EXCEPTION FIFTH.

When a plural pronoun is put by enallage for the singular, it does not agree with its noun in number, because it still requires a plural verb; as, "We [Lindley Murray] have followed those authors."—Murray's Grams., 8vo, p. 29. "We shall close our remarks on this subject."—Ib. "My lord, you have I laye you." Chalment I was to a subject."—The "Chalment I was to be a subject."—The "Chalment I was to be a subject."—The "My lord, you know I love you."—Shakepeare.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE V.

Oss. 1.—The prenoun we is used by the speaker to represent himself and others, and is therefore plural. But it is sometimes used, by a sort of fiction, in stead of the singular, to intimate that the speaker is not alone in his opinions. Monarchs sometimes join it to a singular noun; as, "We Alexander, Autocrat of all the Russias." They also employ the compound ourself, which

is not used by other people.

Oss 2.—The pronoun you, though originally and properly plural, is now generally applied alike to one person or to more. [See Obs. 22, page 71.] This usage, however it may seem to involve a solecism, is established by that authority against which the mere grammarian has scarcely a right to remonstrate. We do not, however, think it necessary or advisable, to encumbes

strate. We do not, however, think it necessary or advisable, to encumber the conjugations, as some have done, by introducing this pronoun and the corresponding form of the verb, as singular. It is manifestly better to say that the plural is used for the singular, by the figure Enallage. This change has introduced the compound yourself, which is used in stead of thyself.

Ons. 3.—The general usage of the French is like that of the English, you for thou; but Spanish, Portuguese, and German politeness requires that the third person be substituted for the second. And, when they would be very courteous, the Germans use also the plural for the singular, as they for thou. Thus they have a fourfold method of addressing a person: as, they, denoting the highest degree of respect; he, a less degree; you, a degree still less; and thou, none at all, or absolute reproach. Yet, even among them, the last is used as a term of endearment to children, and of veneration to God!

Ons. 4.—Such perversions of the original and proper use of language, are doubtless matters of considerable moment. These changes in the use of the pronouns being evidently a sort of complimentary fictions, some have made it

doubtless matters of considerable moment. These changes in the use of the pronouns being evidently a sort of complimentary fictions, some have made it a matter of conscience to abstain from them, and have published their reasons for so doing. But the moral objections which may lie against such or any other applications of words, do not come within the grammarian's province. Let every one consider for himself the moral bearing of what he utters. [See Matthew, xii, 36 and 87.]

One. 5.—When a pronoun represents the name of an inanimate object personified, it agrees with its antecedent in the figurative, and not in the literal same; [See the figure Syllepsis, in PART IV.] as,

"Penance dreams her life away."-Rogers "Grim Darkness furls his leaden shroud."—Id.

One. 6.—When the antecedent is applied *metaphorically*, the pronoun agrees with it in its literal, and not in its figurative sense; as, "Pitt was the power which upheld the state."—"The monarch of mountains reare his nowy head." [See Figures, in PART IV.] OBS. 7.—When the antecedent is put by melonymy for a noun of different properties, the pronoun sometimes agrees with it in the figurative, and sometimes in the literal sense; as,

"The wolf, who [that] from the nightly fold, Fierce drags the bleating prey, ne'er drunk her milk, Nor wore her warming fleece."—Thomson.

"That each may fill the circle mark'd by Heaven, Who sees with equal eye, as God of all, A hero perish or a sparrow fall."—Pope.

"And heaven beholds its image in his breast."—Id.

Ors. 8.—When the antecedent is put by synecdoche for more or less than it literally signifies, the pronoun agrees with it in the figurative, and not in the literal sense; as,

"A dauntless soul erect, who smiled on death."—Thomson.

"But, to the generous still improving mind,
That gives the hopeless heart to sing for joy, To him the long review of ordered life Is inward rapture only to be felt."—Id.

Obs. 9.—Pronouns usually follow the words which they represent; but this order is sometimes reversed: as, "Whom the cap fits, let him put it on."—"Hark! they whisper; angels say," &c.

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Oss. 10.—A pronoun sometimes represents a phrase or sentence; and in

OBS. 10.—A pronoun sometimes represents a phrase or sentence; and in this case, the pronoun is always in the third person singular neuter: as, "She is very handsome; and she has the misfortune to know it."—"Yet men can go on to vilify or disregard Christianity; which is to talk and act as if they had a demonstration of its falsehood."—Bp. Butler.

OBS. 11.—When a pronoun follows two words, having a neuter verb between them, and both referring to the same thing, it may represent either of them, but not with the same meaning; as, 1. "I am the man who command:" here, who command belongs to the subject I, and the meaning is, "I will will be man." (The latter expression places the relative nearer to its antecedent, and is therefore preferable.) 2. "I am the man who commands:" here, who commands belongs to the predicate man, and the meaning is, "I am the commander."

OBS. 12.—After the expletive it, which may be employed to introduce a noun or pronoun of any person, number, or gender, the above-mentioned distinction is generally disregarded; and the relative is made to agree with the latter word: as, "It is not I that do it." The propriety of this construction is questionable.

the latter word: as, "It is not I that ao it." The propriety of this construction is questionable.

Obs. 18.—The pronoun it frequently refers to something mentioned in the subsequent part of the sentence. This pronoun is a necessary expletive at the commencement of a sentence in which the verb is followed by a clause which, by transposition, may be made the subject of the verb; as, "It is impossible to please every one."—"It was requisite that the papers should be sent."

Obs. 14.—Relative and interrogative pronouns are placed at or near the beginning of their own clauses; and the learner must observe that, through the cases they almost inversibly retain this situation in the

all their cases, they almost invariably retain this situation in the sentence and are often found before their verbs when the order of construction would reverse this arrangement: as, "He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal."—Murray. "Who but God can tell us who they are?"—Pope. "He whom you seek."—Lowth.

Oss. 15.—Every relative gronous, being the representative of some antecedent would can be made derive from this relation its nerven number and con-

dent word or phrase, derives from this relation its person, number, and gender, but not its case. By taking an other relation of case, it helps to form an other clause; and, by retaining the essential meaning of its antecedent, serves to connect this clause to that in which the antecedent is found. Relatives, therefore, cannot be used in an independent simple sentence, nor with a subjunctive verb; but, like other connectives, they belong at the head of a clause in a compound sentence, and they exclude conjunctions, except when two such clauses are to be joined together: as, "Blessed is the man, who feareth the Lord, and who keepeth his commandments."

One. 16.—The special rules commonly given by the grammarians, for the construction of relatives, are both unnecessary and faulty. It usually takes two rules to parse a pronoun; one for its agreement with the noun or nouns which it represents, and the other for its case. But neither relatives nor interrogatives require any special rules for the construction of their cases, because the general rules for the cases apply to pronouns as well as to nouns. And both relatives and interrogatives generally admit every construction common to nouns, except apposition. Let the learner parse the following

common to nouns, except apposition. Let the learner parse the following examples:—
1. Nominatives by Rule 2d: "I who write;—Thou who writes;—He who writes;—the animal which runs."—Dr. Adam. "He that spareth his rod, hatch his son."—Solomon. "He who does any thing which he knows is wrong, is a sinner."—"What will become of us without religion?"—Blair. "Here I determined to wait the hand of death; which, I hope, when at last it comes, will fall lightly upon me."—Dr. Johnson. "What is sudden and unaccountable, serves to confound."—Orabb. "They only are wise, who are wise to salvation."—Gooderin.
2. Nominatives by Rule 21st: "Who art thou?"—"What were we?"—Ribs.

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"Do not tell them who I am."—"Let him be who he may, he is not the honest fellow that he seemed."—"The general conduct of mankind is neither

** The general conduct of marking is neither schaft it was designed, nor what it ought to be."

**3. Nominatives absolute by Rule 25th: "There are certain bounds to imprudence and misbehaviour, which being transgressed, there remains no place for repentance in the natural course of things." —Bp. Butler. This construction of the relative is a Latinism, and very seldom used by the best English. writers.

writers.

4. Possessives by Rule 19th: "The chief man of the island, whose name was Publius."—Acts. "Despair, a cruel tyrant, from whose prisons none can escape."—Dr. Johnson. "To contemplate on Him whose yoke is easy and whose burden is light."—Steele.

5. Objectives by Rule 20th: "Those whom she persuaded."—Dr. Johnson. "The cloak that I left at Troas."—St. Paul. "By the things which he suffered."—Id. "A man whom there is reason to suspect."—"What are we to do?"—Burks. "Love refuseth nothing that love sends."—Gurnall. "Whatsoever he doeth, shall prosper."—Bible. "What we are afraid to do before men, we should be afraid to think before God."—Sibs. "Shall I hide from Abraham that thing eshich I do?"—Gen., xviii, 32. "Shall I hide from Abraham what I do?"—"Call imperfection what thou fanciest such."—Pope.

6. Objectives by Rule 21st: "He is not the man that I took him to be."—"Whom did you suppose me to be?"—"Let the lad become what you wish him to be."

him to be."

7. Objection by Rule 22d: "To whom shall we go?"—Bible. "The laws by which the world is governed, are general."—Butler. "Whom he looks upon as his defender."—Addison. "That secret heaviness of heart which unthinking men are subject to."—Id. "I cannot but think the loss of such talents as the man of whom I am speaking was master of, a more melancholy instance."-Steele.

Oss. 17.—In familiar language, the relative in the objective case is frequently understood; as, "Here is the letter [which] I received." The omission of the relative in the nominative case, is inelegant; as, "This is the worst thing [that] could happen." The latter ellipsis sometimes occurs in

poetry; as,

"In this 'tis God-directs, in that 'tis man."-Pope.

Obs. 18.—The antecedent is sometimes suppressed, especially in poetry; as, "How shall I curse [him or them] whom God hath not cursed."— Numb., xxiii, 8.

[He] "Who lives to nature, rarely can be poor; [He] Who lives to fancy, never can be rich."—Young.

Obs. 19.—What is sometimes used adverbially; as, "Though I forbear, what am I eased?"—Job, xvi, 6.—That is, how much? or wherein? "The

enemy having his country wasted, what by himself and what by the soldiers, findeth succour in no place."—Spenser. Here what means partly,—"wasted partly by himself and partly by the soldiers."

One. 20.—What is sometimes used as a mere interjection; as,

"What! this a sleeve? 'tis like a demi-cannon."—Shatspears. "What! can you lull the winged winds asleep?—Campbell.

NOTES TO RULE V.

Note I.—A pronoun should not be introduced in connexion with words that belong more properly to the antecedent, or to an other pronoun; as,

"My banks they are furnished with bees."—Shenstone.

Oss.—This is only an example of pleonasm; which is allowable and frequent in animated discourse, but inelegant in any other. [See Pleonasm, in PART IV.)

Note II.—A change of number in the second person, is inelegant and improper; as, "You wept, and I for thee,"

Ors.—Poets have sometimes adopted this solecism, to avoid the harshness of the verb in the second person singular; as,

"As, in that lov'd Athenian bower, You learn'd an all commanding power,
Thy mimic soul, O nymph endear'd!
Can well recall what then it heard."—Collins.

Note III.—The relative who is applied only to persons, and to animals personified; and which, to brute animals and inanimate things: as, "The judge who presided;"—"The old crab who advised the young one;"-" The horse which ran;"-" The book which was given me."

Obs.—Which, as well as who, was formerly applied to persons; as, "Our Futher which art in heaven."—Bible. It may still be applied to a young child; as, "The child which died."—Or even to adults, when they spoken of without regard to a distinct personality or identity; as, "Which of you will go?"—"Crabb knoweth not which is which, himself or his parodist."—Ligh Hunt.

Note IV.—Nouns of multitude, unless they express persons directly as such, should not be represented by the relative who: to say, "The family whom I visited," would hardly be proper; that would here be better. When such nouns are strictly of the neuter gender, which may represent them; as, "The committees which were appointed."

Note V.—A proper name taken merely as a name, or an appellative taken in any sense not strictly personal, must be represented by which, and not by who; as, "Herod—which is but another name for cruelty."—"In every prescription of duty, God proposeth himself as a rewarder; which he is only to those that please him."—Dr. J. Owen.

Note VI.—The relative that may be applied either to persons or to things. In the following cases, it is generally preferable to who or which, unless it be necessary to use a preposition before the relative:—1. After an adjective of the superlative degree, when the relative clause is restrictive; as, "He was the first that came."—2. After the adjective same, to explain its import; as, "This is the same person that I met before."—3. After the antecedent who; as, "Who that has common sense, can think so?"—4. After a joint reference to persons and things; as, "He spoke of the men and things that he had seen."—5. After an unlimited antecedent, which the relative and its verb are to restrict; as, "Thoughts that breathe, and words that burn."—6. After an antecedent introduced by the expletive it; as, "It is you that command."—"It was I that did it."—7. And, in general, where the propriety of who or which is doubtful; as, "The little child that was placed in the midst."

Note VII.—When several relative clauses come in succession, and have a similar dependence in respect to the antecedent, the same pronoun must be employed in each; as, "O thou who art, and who wast, and who art to come!"—"And they shall spread them before the sun, and the moon, and all the host of heaven, whom they have loved, and whom they have served, and after whom they have walked, and whom they have sought, and whom they have worshipped."—Jer., viii, 2.

Note VIII.—The relative, and the preposition governing it, should not be omitted, when they are necessary to give connexion to the sentence; as, "He is still in the situation [in]

which you saw him."

Note IX.—An adverb should not be used where a preposition and a relative pronoun would better express the relation of the terms; as, "A cause where [for in which] justice is so much concerned."

Note X.—Where a pronoun or a pronominal adjective will not express the meaning clearly, the noun must be repeated, or inserted in stead of it. Example: "We see the beautiful variety of colour in the rainbow, and are led to consider the cause of it?" [—that variety].

Norm XI.—To prevent ambiguity or obscurity, the relative should be placed as near as possible to the antecedent. The following sentence is therefore faulty: "He is like a beast of prey, that is void of compassion." Better: "He that is void of compassion, is like a beast of prey."

Note XII.—The pronoun what should never be used in stead of the conjunction that; as, "He will not believe but what I am to blame." What should be that.

Note XIII.—A pronoun should not be used to represent an adjective; because it can neither express a concrete quality as

such, nor convert it properly into an abstract. Example: "Be attentive; without which you will learn nothing." Better: "Be attentive; for without attention you will learn nothing."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE V .-- PRONOUNS.

No person should be censured for being careful of their reputation.

[Formule.—Not proper, because the pronoun their is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent noun person, which is of the third person, singular, masculine. But, according to Rule 5th, "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender." Therefore, their should be his; thus, No person should be censured for being careful of Ms reputation.]

Every one must judge of their own feelings.—Byron.

Can any person, on their entrance into the world, be fully secure that they shall not be deceived?

He cannot see one in prosperity without envying them.

I gave him oats, but he would not eat it.

Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them on Jacob.

Take up the tongs, and put it in its place.

Let each esteem others better than themselves.

A person may make themselves happy without riches.

Every man should try to provide for themselves.

The mind of man should not be left without something on which to employ his energies.

An idler is a watch that wants both hands, As useless if he goes, as when he stands.

Under Note 1.—Pronouns Wrong or Needless.

Many words they darken speech.

These praises he then seemed inclined to retract them.

These people they are all very ignorant. As a his heart was perfect with the Lord.

Who, in stead of going about doing good, they are perpetually intent upon doing mischief.—Tillotson.

Whom ye delivered up, and denied him in the presence of Pontius Pilate.—Acts, iii, 13.

Whom, when they had washed, they laid her in an upper chamber.—Acts, ix, 37.

What I have mentioned, there are witnesses of the fact.

What he said, he is now sorry for it.

The empress, approving these conditions, she immediately ratified them.

This incident, though it appears improbable, yet I cannot doubt the author's veracity.

Under Note 2.—Change of Number.

Thou art my father's brother, else would I reprove you.

Your weakness is excusable, but thy wickedness is not. Now, my son, I forgive thee, and freely pardon your fault.

You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song, Till nobly rises emulous thy own.—Thomson.

Under Note 3 .- Of Who and Which.

This is the horse whom my father imported. Those are the birds whom we call gregarious.

He has two brothers, one of which I am acquainted with.

What was that creature whom Job called leviathan?

Those which desire to be safe, should be careful to do that which is right.

A butterfly which thought himself an accomplished traveller, happened to light upon a bee-hive.

There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard.

Under Note 4.—Nouns of Multitude.

He instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him.

The court, who has great influence upon the public manners, ought to be very exemplary.

The wild tribes who inhabit the wilderness, contemplate the ocean with astonishment, and gaze upon the starry heavens with delight.

Under Note 5 .- Mere Names.

Judas (who is now another name for treachery) betrayed his master with a kiss,

He alluded to Phalaris,—who is a name for all that is cruel.

Under Note 6 .- That Preferable.

He was the first who entered.

He was the drollest fellow whom I ever saw.

This is the same man whom we saw before.

Who is she who comes clothed in a robe of green?

The wife and fortune whom he gained, did not aid him, Men who are avaricious, never have enough.

All which I have, is thine.

Was it thou, or the wind, who shut the door?

It was not I who shut it.

The babe who was in the cradle, appeared to be healthy.

Under Note 7 .- Relative Clauses Connected.

He is a man that knows what belongs to good manners, and who will not do a dishonourable act.

The friend who was here, and that entertained us so much, will never be able to visit us again.

The curiosities which he has brought home, and that we shall have the pleasure of seeing, are said to be very rare,

Under Note 8.—Relative and Preposition.

Observe them in the order they stand.

We proceeded immediately to the place we were directed. My companion remained a week in the state I left him. The way I do it, is this.

Under Note 9 .- Adverbs for Relatives.

Remember the condition whence thou art rescued.

I know of no rule how it may be done.

He drew up a petition, where he too freely represented his own merits.

The hour is hastening, when whatever praise or censure I have acquired, will be remembered with equal indifference.

Under Note 10.—Repeat the Noun.

Many will acknowledge the excellence of religion, who cannot tell wherein it consists.

Every difference of opinion is not that of principle.

Next to the knowledge of God, this of ourselves seems most worthy of our endeavour.

Under Note 11.—Place of the Relative.

Thou art thyself the man that committed the act, who hast thus condemned it.

There is a certain majesty in simplicity, which is far above the quaintness of wit.

Thou hast no right to judge who art a party concerned.

It is impossible for such men as those, ever to determine this question, who are likely to get the appointment.

There are millions of people in the empire of China, whose support is derived almost entirely from rice.

Under Note 12 .- What for That,

I had no idea but what the story was true. The post-boy is not so weary but what he can whistle. He had no intimation but what the men were honest.

Under Note 13 .- Adjectives for Antecedents.

Some men are too ignorant to be humble; without which there can be no docility.—Berkley.

Judas declared him innocent; which he could not be, had he in any respect deceived the disciples.—Portous.

Be accurate in all you say or do; for it is important in all the concerns of life.

Every law supposes the transgressor to be wicked; which indeed he is, if the law is just.

RULE VL—PRONOUNS.

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Pronoun must agree with it in the plural number; as, "The council were divided in their sentiments."

OBSERVATION ON RULE VI.

Most collective nouns of the neuter gender, may take the regular *plural* form, and be represented by a pronoun in the third person, plural, neuter; as, "The nations will enforce their laws." This construction comes under Rule 5th. To Rule 6th there are no exceptions.

NOTE TO RULE VI.

A collective noun conveying the idea of unity, requires a pronoun in the third person, singular, neuter, agreeably to Rule 5th; as, "The nation will enforce its laws."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE VI.--PRONOUNS.

The jury will be confined till it agrees on a verdict.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the pronoun t is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent fury, which is a collective noun, conveying this does of plurality. But, according to Rule 6th, "When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it in the plural number." Therefore, t should be t hoy; thus, The jury will be confined till t hoy agree on a verdict.]

In youth, the multitude eagerly pursue pleasure, as if it were its chief good.

The council were not unanimous, and it separated without coming to any determination.

The committee were divided in sentiment, and it referred the business to the general meeting.

There happened to the army a very strange accident, which put it in great consternation.

The enemy were not able to support the charge, and he dispersed and fied.

The defendant's counsel had a difficult task imposed on it. The board of health publish its proceedings.

I saw all the species thus delivered from its sorrows.

Under Note to Rule 6th.—The Idea of Unity.

I saw the whole species thus delivered from their sorrows. This court is famous for the justice of their decisions.

The convention then resolved themselves into a committee of the whole.

The crowd was so great that the judges with difficulty made their way through them.

RULE VII.—PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number; as, "James and John will favour us with their company."

EXCEPTION FIRST.

When two or more antecedents connected by and, serve merely to describe one person or thing; they are in apposition, and do not require a plural pronoun: as, "This great philosopher and statesman continued in public life till his eighty-second year."—"The same Spirit, light, and life, which enlighteneth, also sanotifieth, and there is not an other."—Penington.

EXCEPTION SECOND.

When two antecedents connected by and, are emphatically distinguished; they belong to different propositions, and (if singular) do not require a plural pronoun: as, "The butter, and not the batter, was restored to his office."—"The good man, and the sinner too, shall have his reward."—"Truth, and truth only, is worth seeking for its own sake."

EXCEPTION THIRD.

When two or more antecedents connected by and, are preceded by the adjective each, every, or no; they are taken separately, and do not require a plural pronoun: as, "Every plant and every tree produces others after its kind."—"It is the original cause of every repreach and distress which has attended the government."—Junius.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE VII.

Oss. 1.—When the antecedents are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third: as, "John, and thou, and I, are attached to our country."—"John and thou are attached to your country."

OBS. 2.—The gender of pronouns, except in the third person singular, is distinguished only by their antecedents. In expressing that of a pronoun which has antecedents of different genders, the masculine should be preferred to the feminine, and the feminine to the neuter.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE VIL-PRONOUNS.

Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun *tiself* is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents discontent and sorrow, which are connected by and, and taken conjointly. But, according to Bule 7th, "When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number." Therefore, tiself should be themselves; thus, Discontent and sorrow manifested themselves in his countenance.]

Your levity and heedlessness if it continue, will prevent all substantial improvement.

Poverty and obscurity will oppress him only who esteems it oppressive.

Good sense and refined policy are obvious to few, because it cannot be discovered but by a train of reflection.

Avoid haughtiness of behaviour, and affectation of manners: it implies a want of solid merit.

If love and unity continue, it will make you partakers of one an other's joy.

Suffer not jealousy and distrust to enter: it will destroy, like a canker, every germ of friendship.

Hatred and animosity are inconsistent with Christian charity: guard, therefore, against the slightest indulgence of it.

Every man is entitled to liberty of conscience, and freedom of opinion, if he does not pervert it to the injury of others.

RULE VIII.—PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number: as, "James or John will favour us with his company."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE VIII.

Obs. 1.—When a pronoun has two or more plural antecedents connected by or or nor, it is of course plural, and agrees with them severally. To the foregoing rule, there are properly no exceptions.

Obs. 2.—When antecedents of different persons, numbers, or genders, are connected by or or nor, they cannot be represented by a pronoun that is not applicable to each of them. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate: "Either thou or I am greatly mistaken in our judgement on this subject."—Murray's Key. But different pronouns may be so connected as to refer to such antecedents taken separately; as, "By requiring greater labour from such slave or slaves, than he or she or they are able to perform."—Prince's Digest. Or, if the gender only be different, the masculine may involve the feminine by implication; as, "If a man smite the eye of his servant or the eye of his maid that it perish, he shall let him go free for his eye's sake."—Excedus, xxi, 28. Ecodus, xxi, 26.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE VIII, --- PRONOUNS.

Neither wealth nor honour can secure the happiness of their votaries.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun their is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents neatth and honour, which are connected by nor, and taken disjunctively. But, according to Rule 8th, "When a pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number." Therefore, their, should be its; thus, Neither wealth nor honour can secure the happiness of its votaries.]

Neither Sarah, Ann, nor Jane, has performed their task.

One or the other must relinquish their claim.

A man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which will move only as they are moved.

Rye or barley, when they are scorched, may supply the place of coffee.

A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description.

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life, for they may be thy own lot.

RULE IX.—VERBS.

A finite Verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number: as, "I know; thou knowst, or knowest; he knows, or knoweth."—"The bird flies; the birds fly."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE IX.

Oss. 1.—To this general rule for the verb, there are properly no exceptions. The infinitive mood, having no relation to a nominative, is of course exempt from such agreement; and all the special rules which follow, virtually accord with this.

Ons. 2.—Every finite verb (that is, every verb not in the infinitive mood) must have some noun, pronoun, or phrase equivalent, known as the subject of the being, action, or passion; and with this subject the verb must agree

in person and number.

in person and number.

Ons. 3.—Different verbs always have different subjects, expressed or understood; except when two or more verbs are connected in the same construction, or when the same verb is repeated for the sake of emphasis.

Ons. 4.—Verbs in the imperative mod, commonly agree with the pronoun thou, ye, or you, understood; as, "Do [thou] as thou list."—Shat. "Trust God and be doing, and leave the rest with him."—Dr. Sibe.

Ons. 5.—The place of a verb can have reference only to that of the subject with which it agrees, and that of the object which it governs; this matter is therefore sufficiently explained in the observations under Rule 2d and Rule 20th.

NOTES TO RULE IX.

Note I.—"The adjuncts of the nominative do not control its agreement with the verb: as, Six months' interest was due." -W. Allen. "The propriety of these rules is evident."—Id. "The mill, with all its appurtenances, was destroyed."

Note II.—The infinitive mood, a phrase, or a sentence, is sometimes the subject to a verb: a subject of this kind, however composed, if it is taken as one whole, requires a verb in the third person singular; as, "To lie is base."—"To see the sun is pleasant."-"That you have violated the law, is evident." -"For what purpose they embarked, is not yet known." - "How far the change would contribute to his welfare, comes to be considered."—Blair.

Obs. 1.—The same meaning will be expressed, if the pronoun if be placed before the verb, and the infinitive, phrase, or sentence, after it; as, "R is base to lie."—"It is evident that you have violated the low." The construction of the following sentences is rendered defective by the omission of the pronoun: "Why do ye that which [it] is not lawful to do on the sabbath days?"—Luke, vi, 2. "The show-bread which [it] is not lawful to eat, but for the priests only."—Luke, vi, 4.

Obs. 2.—When the infinitive mood is made the subject of a finite verb, it

is used to express some action or state in the abstract; as, "To be contents his natural desire."—Pope. Here to be stands for simple existence. In connexion with the infinitive, a concrete quality may also be taken as an abstract; as, "To be good is to be happy." Here good and happy express the quality of goodness and the state of happiness, considered abstractly; and therefore these adjectives do not relate to any particular noun. So also the passive infinitive, or a perfect participle taken in a passive sense; as, "To be satisfied with a little, is the greatest wisdom."—"To appear discouraged, is the way to become so." Here the satisfaction and the discouragement are considered abstractly, and without reference to any particular person.

Obs. 8.—When the action or state is to be limited to a particular person or thing, the noun or pronoun may be introduced before the infinitive, by the preposition for; as, "For a prince to be reduced by villany to my distressful circumstances, is calamity enough."—Tr. of Sallust.

Note III.—A neuter or a passive verb between two nominatives should be made to agree with that which precedes it; as, "Words are wind:" except when the terms are transposed, and the proper subject is put after the verb by question or hyperbaton; as, "His pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds of the sky."—Bible. "Who art thou?"—Ib. "The wages of sin is death."-Ib.

Note IV.—When the verb has different forms, that form should be adopted, which is the most consistent with present and reputable usage in the style employed: thus, to say familiarly, "The clock hath stricken,"—"Thou laughedst and talkedst, when thou oughtest to have been silent,"—"He readeth and writeth, but he doth not cipher,"-would be no better, than to use don't, won't, can't, shan't, and didn't, in preaching.

Note V.—Every finite verb not in the imperative mood, should have a separate nominative expressed; as, "I came, I saw, I conquered:" except when the verb is repeated for the sake of emphasis, or connected to an other in the same construction; as,

"They bud, blow, wither, fall, and die." - Watts.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE IX.—VERBS.

You was kindly received.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the passive verb was received is of the singular number, and does not agree with its nominative you, which is of the second person, plural. But, according to Rule 9th, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number." Therefore, was received should be were received; thus, You were kindly received.]

We was disappointed. She dare not oppose it. His pulse are too quick. Circumstances alters cases. He need not trouble himself. Twenty-four pence is two shillings. On one side was beautiful meadows. He may pursue what studies he please, What have become of our cousins?
There was more impostors than one.
What says his friends on this subject?
Thou knows the urgency of the case.
What avails good sentiments with a bad life?
Has those books been sent to the school?
There is many occasions for the exercise of patience.
What sounds have each of the vowels?
There were a great number of spectators.
There are an abundance of treatises on this easy science.

While ever and anon there falls Huge heaps of hoary moulder'd walls.—Dyer.

He that trust in the Lord, will never be without a friend. Errors that originates in ignorance, is generally excusable. Be ye not as the horse, or as the mule, which have no understanding.

Not one of the authors who mentions this incident, is entitled to credit.

The man and woman that was present, being strangers to him, wondered at his conduct.

There necessarily follows from thence these plain and unquestionable consequences.

O thou, for ever present in my way, Who all my motives and my toils survey.

Under Note 1.—Nominatives with Adjuncts.

The derivation of these words are uncertain.

Four years' interest were demanded.

One added to nineteen, make twenty.

The increase of orphans render the addition necessary.'

The road to virtue and happiness, are open to all.

The ship, with all her crew, were lost.

A round of vain and foolish pursuits, delight some folks.

Under Note 2.—Composite Subjects.

To obtain the praise of men, were their only object.

To steal and then deny it, are a double sin.

To copy and claim the writings of others, are plagiarism.

To live soberly, righteously, and piously, are required of all men.

That it is our duty to promote peace and harmony among men, admit of no dispute.

Under Note 3 .- Verb between Nominatives.

The reproofs of instruction is the way of life. A diphthong are two vowels joined in one syllable, So great an affliction to him was his wicked sons. What is the latitude and longitude of that island? He churlishly said to me, "Who is you?"

Under Note 4.—Adapt Form to Style.

1. For the Familiar Style.

Was it thou that buildedst that house? That boy writeth very elegantly. Couldest not thou write without blotting thy book? Thinkest thou not it will rain to-day? Doth not your cousin intend to visit you? That boy hath torn my book. Was it thou that spreadest the hay? Was it James or thou that didst let him in? He dareth not say a word. Thou stoodest in my way and hinderedst me.

2. For the Solemn Style.

The Lord has prepar'd his throne in the heavens; and his kingdom rules over all.

Thou answer'd them, O Lord our God: thou was a God that forgave them, though thou took vengeance of their inventions. Then thou spoke in vision to thy Holy One, and said—So then it is not of him that wills, nor of him that runs, but of God that shows mercy.

Under Note 5.—Express the Nominative.

New York, Fifthmonth 3d, 1823.

Dear friend, Am sorry to hear of thy loss; but hope it may be retrieved. Should be happy to render thee any assistance in my power. Shall call to see thee to-morrow morning. Accept assurances of my regard.

A. B.

New York, May 3d, P. M., 1823.

Dear sir, Have just received the kind note favoured me with this morning; and cannot forbear to express my gratitude to you. On further information, find have not lost so much as at first supposed; and believe shall still be able to meet all my engagements. Should, however, be happy to see you. Accept, dear sir, my most cordial thanks. C.D.

> Will martial flames forever fire thy mind, And never, never be to Heaven resign'd?—Pope.

RULE X.—VERBS.

When the nominative is a collective noun conveying

the idea of plurality, the Verb must agree with it in the plural number; as, "The council were divided."

OBSERVATION ON RULE X.

To this rule there are no exceptions. Whenever the collective noun conveys the idea of plurality without the form, the verb is to be parsed by Rule 10th; but if the nominative conveys the idea of unity or takes the plural form, the verb is to be parsed by Rule 9th. The only difficulty is, to determine in what sense the noun should be taken. In modern usage, a plural verb is commonly adopted wherever it is admissible; as, "The public are informed,"—"The plaintiff's counsel are of opinion,"—"The committee were instructed."

NOTE TO RULE X.

A collective noun conveying the idea of unity, requires a verb in the third person, singular; and generally admits also the regular plural construction: as. "His army was defeated." "His armies were defeated."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE X .- VERBS.

The people rejoices in that which should cause sorrow.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb rejoices is of the singular number, and does not correctly agree with its nominative people, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Rule 10th, "When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number." Therefore, rejoices should be rejoice; thus, The people rejoice in that which should cause sorrow.]

The nobility was assured that he would not interpose. The committee has attended to their appointment. Mankind was not united by the bonds of civil society. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure.

The peasantry goes barefoot, and the middle sort makes use

All the world is spectators of your conduct. Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound.

Under Note to Rule 10 .- The Idea of Unity.

The church have no power to inflict corporal punishments. The fleet were seen sailing up the channel.

The meeting have established several salutary regulations. The regiment consist of a thousand men.

A detachment of two hundred men were immediately sent. Every auditory take this in good part.

In this business, the house of commons were of no weight. Are the senate considered as a separate body?

There are a flock of birds.

of wooden shoes.

No society are chargeable with the disapproved conduct of particular members.

RULE XI.—VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more nominatives connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number: as.

> "Judges and senates have been bought for gold, Esteem and love were never to be sold."—Pope.

EXCEPTION FIRST.

When two or more nominatives connected by and, serve merely to describe one person or thing; they are in apposition, and do not require a plural verb: as, "This philosopher and poet was banished from his country."—"Toll, tribute, and oustom, was paid unto them."—Ezra, iv, 20.

"Whose icy current and compulsive course Ne'er feels retiring ebb, but keeps due on."—Shakspears.

EXCEPTION SECOND.

When two nominatives connected by and, are emphatically distinguished; they belong to different propositions, and (if singular) do not require a plural verb: as, "Ambition, and not the safety of the state, was concerned."—Goldsmith.

"Ay, and no too, was no good divinity."—Shakepears. "Love, and love only, is the loan for love."—Young.

EXCEPTION THIRD.

When two or more nominatives connected by and, are preceded by the adjective each, every, or no; they are taken separately, and do not require a plural verb: as, "When no part of their substance, and no one of their properties, is the same."—Butter. "Every limb and feature appears with its respective grace."-Steele.

EXCEPTION FOURTH.

When the verb separates its nominatives, it agrees with that which precedes it, and is understood to the rest; as,

Forth in the pleasing spring,
Thy besuty walks, thy tenderness, and love."—Thomson.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XI.

Oss. 1.—The conjunction is sometimes understood; as, "Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed."—Beattie.

"Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed."—Beattie.
Oss. 2.—In Greek and Latin, the verb frequently agrees with the nearest nominative, and is understood to the rest; and this construction is sometimes improperly imitated in English: as, "Novi δι MENEI πίστις, λλπίς, ἀγάπη, rà τρία ταῦτα."—"Nuno verò manet fides, spes, charitas; tria hæc."—"Now / abideth faith, hope, charity; these three."—1 Cor., xiii, 13.
Oss. 3.—When the nominatives are of different persons, the verb agrees with the first person in preference to the second, and with the second in preference to the third; for thou and I (or he, thou, and I) are equivalent to we; and thou and he are equivalent to you: as, "Why speakest thou any more of thy matters? I have said, thou and Ziba divide the land."—2 Sam., xix, 29. I. e., "divide ye the land."

NOTES TO RULE XI.

Note I.—When two subjects or antecedents are connected. one of which is taken affirmatively, and the other negatively, they belong to different propositions; and the verb or pronoun must agree with the affirmative subject, and be understood to the other: as, "Diligent industry, and not mean savings, produces honourable competence."—" Not a loud voice, but strong

proofs bring conviction."

Note II.—When two subjects or antecedents are connected by as-well-as, but, or save, they belong to different propositions; and, (unless one of them is preceded by the adverb not.) the verb and pronoun must agree with the former and be understood to the latter: as, "Veracity, as well as justice, is to be our rule of life."—Butler. " Nothing, but wailings, was heard.—" None, but thou, can aid us."—" No mortal man, save he, &c., had e'er survived to say he saw,"- W. Scott.

Obs. 1.—The conjunction as, when it connects nominatives that are in apposition, is commonly placed at the beginning of the sentence, so that the bagrees with its proper nominative following the explanatory word; thus, "As a poet, he holds a high rank."—Murray. But when this conjunction denotes a comparison between two nominatives, there must be two verball and appropriate of the property of the conjunction denotes a comparison between two nominatives, there must be two verballs are applied.

expressed or understood, each agreeing with its own subject; as, "Such sortiers as he [is] have no reputation among the learned."

Oss. 2.—Some grammarians say that but and save, when they denote exception, should govern the objective case, as prepositions; but this is not according to the usage of the best authors. The objective case of nouns being like the positivity the positions of the present the same of the present the same of the present that the present the pres cording to the usage of the best authors. The objective case of nouns being like the nominative, the point can be proved only by the pronouns; as, "There is none but he alone."—Perkins's Theology, 1608. "There is none other but he."—Mark, xii, 32. (This text is good authority as regards the case, though it is incorrect in an other respect: it should have been, "There is none but he," or, "There is no other than he.") "No man hath ascended up to heaven, but he that came down from heaven."—John, iii, 18. "Not that any man hath seen the Father, save he which is of God."—John, vi, 46. "Fow can, save he and I."—Byron's Werner. "There is none justified, but he that is in measure sanctified."—Penington. Save, as a conjunction, is nearly obsolete. In Rev., ii, 17, we read, "Which no man knoweth, saving he that receivable it." he that receiveth it."

Note III.—When two or more subjects or antecedents are preceded by the adjective each, every or no, they are taken separately, and require a verb and pronoun in the singular number: as,

"And every sense, and every heart is joy."—Thomson.

"Each beast, each insect, happy in its own."—Pope.

Note IV.—When words are to be taken conjointly as subiects or antecedents, the conjunction and must connect them.

Oss.—In Latin, cum with an ablative, sometimes has the force of the conjunction et with a nominative; as, "Dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur."

—Livy. In imitation of this construction, some English writers have substituted with for and, and varied the verb accordingly; as, "A long course of time, with a variety of accidents and circumstances, are requisite to produce these revolutions."—Hume. But, as the preposition makes its object only an adjunct of the preceding noun, this construction cannot be justified.

Note V.—Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by and, require a plural verb: as, " To be wise in our own eyes, to be wise in the opinion of the world, and to be wise in the sight of our Creator, are three things so very different, as rarely to coincide."—Blair.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XI.-VERBS.

Industry and frugality leads to wealth.

[Formule.—Not proper, because the verb leads is in the singular number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, industry and frugality, which are connected by and, and taken conjointly. But, according to Rule 11th, "When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number." Therefore leads should be lead; thus, Industry and frugality lead to wealth.]

Temperance and exercise preserves health.

Time and tide waits for no man.

My love and affection towards thee remains unaltered.

Wealth, honour, and happiness, forsakes the indolent.

My flesh and my heart faileth.

In all his works, there is sprightliness and vigour.

Elizabeth's meekness and humility was extraordinary.

In unity consists the security and welfare of every society.

High pleasures and luxurious living begets satiety.

Much does human pride and folly require correction.

Our conversation and intercourse with the world is, in several respects, an education for vice.

Occasional release from toil, and indulgence of ease, is what nature demands, and virtue allows.

What generosity, and what humanity, was then displayed!

And what thou fearst, alike destroys all hope.

Under Note 1.—Affirmation with Negation.

Window and not would make a set com

Wisdom, and not wealth, procure esteem. Prudence, and not pomp, are the basis of his fame.

Not fear, but labour have overcome him.

The decency, and not the abstinence, make the difference.

Not her beauty, but her talents attracts attention.

It is her talents, and not her beauty, that attracts attention. It is her beauty, and not her talents, that attract attention.

Under Note 2.—As Well As, But, or Save.

His constitution, as well as his fortune, require care.

Their religion, as well as their manners, were ridiculed.

Every one, but thou, hadst been legally discharged.

The buyer, as well as the seller, render themselves liable.

All songsters, save the hooting owl, was mute.

None but thou O mighty prince! canst evert the blow.

None, but thou, O mighty prince! canst avert the blow. Nothing, but frivolous amusements, please the indolent. Cæsar, as well as Cicero, were admired for their eloquence.

Under Note 3.—Each, Every, or No.

Each day, and each hour, bring their portion of duty. Every house, and even every cottage, were plundered.

Every thought, every word, and every action, will be brought into judgement, whether they be good or evil.

The time will come, when no oppressor, no unjust man, will be able to screen themselves from punishment.

No bandit fierce, no tyrant mad with pride, No cavern'd hermit, rest self-satisfied.

Under Note 4.—And Required.

In this affair, perseverance with dexterity were requisite. Town or country are equally agreeable to me. Sobriety with humility lead to honour.

The king, with the lords, and the commons, compose the British parliament.

The man with his whole family are dead.

A small house in addition to a triffing annuity, are still granted him.

Under Note 5.—Distinct Subject Phrases.

To profess, and to possess, is very different things.

To do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with God, is duties of universal obligation.

To be round or square, to be solid or fluid, to be large or small, and to be moved swiftly or slowly, is all equally alien from the nature of thought.

RULE XII.—VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number: as, "Fear or jealousy affects him."

OBSERVATION ON RULE XII.

To this rule there are properly no exceptions. But in the learned transparent a plural verb is often employed with singular nominatives thus connected; as,

"Tune nec mens mihi, nec color Certa sede manent."—Horace.

And the best scholars have sometimes improperly imitated this construction in English; as,

"He comes—nor want nor cold his course delay; Hide, blushing Glory! hide Pultowa's day."—Dr. Johnson.

NOTES TO RULE XII.

Note I.—When a verb has nominatives of different persons or numbers, connected by or or nor, it must agree with that

which is placed next to it, and be understood to the rest, in the person and number required; as, "Neither he nor his brothers were there."-" Neither you nor I am concerned."-"That neither they nor ye also die."—Numb, xviii, 3.

Obs. 1.—When the latter nominative is parenthetical, the verb agrees with the former only; as, "One example (or ten) says nothing against the universal opinion." Lieigh Hunt. "And we (or future ages) may possibly have a proof of it."—Bp. Butler.

Obs. 2.—When the alternative is merely in the words, not in the thought, the terms are virtually in apposition, and the principal nominative almost controls the verb; but there is always a harshness in this mixture of different numbers: as, "A parathesis, or brackets, consists of two angular strokes, or hooks, enclosing one or more words."—Whiting. "To show us that our own schemes, or prudence, have no share in our advancements."—Addison. "The Mexican figures, or picture-writing, represent things, not words; they exhibit images to the eye, not ideas to the understanding."—Murray's Gram., p. 243.

Note II.—But when the nominatives require different forms of the verb, it is in general more elegant to express the verb, or its auxiliary, in connexion with each of them; as, "Either thou art to blame, or I am."—"Neither were their numbers, nor was their destination known."

Note III.—The speaker should generally mention himself last; as, "Thou or I must go."—"He then addressed his discourse to my father and me." But in confessing a fault he may assume the first place; as, "I and Robert did it."—M. Edgeworth.

Note IV.—Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by or or nor, require a singular verb; as, "That a drunkard should be poor, or that a fop should be ignorant, is not strange."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XII.--VERBS.

Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the verb have caused is of the plural number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, ignorance and negligence, which are connected by or, and taken disjunctively. But, according to Rule 12th, "When a werb has two or more singular nominatives connected by ôr or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number." Therefore, have caused should be has caused; thus, Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake.]

Neither imprudence, credulity, nor vanity, have ever been im-

What the heart or the imagination dictate, flows readily. Neither authority nor analogy support such an opinion.

Either ability or inclination were wanting.

Redundant grass or heath afford abundance to their cattle.

The returns of kindness are sweet; and there are neither honour, nor virtue, nor utility, in repelling them.

The sense or drift of a proposition, often depend upon a single letter. 16 .

perfidy.

Under Note 1.—Nominatives that Disagree.

Neither he nor you was there.

Either the boys or I were in fault.

Neither he nor I intends to be present.

Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved.

Whether one person or more was concerned in the business, does not yet appear.

Under Note 2.—Complete the Concord.

Are they or I expected to be there?

Neither he, nor am I, capable of it.

Either he has been imprudent, or his associates vindictive.

Neither were their riches, nor their influence great.

Under Note 3 .- Place of the First Person.

I and my father were riding out.
The premiums were given to me and George.
I and Jane are invited.
They ought to invite me and my sister.
We dreamed a dream in one night, I and he.

Under Note 4.—Distinct Subject Phrases.

To practise tale-bearing, or even to countenance it, are great injustice.

To reveal secrets, or to betray one's friends, are contemptible

RULE XIII.—VERBS.

When Verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed: as, "He himself held the plough, sowed the grain, and attended the reapers."—
"She was proud, but she is now humble."

EXCEPTION.

Verbs differing in mood, tense, or form, may sometimes agree with the same nominative, especially if the simplest verbs be placed first; as,

"What nothing earthly gives or can destroy."—Pope. "Some are, and must be, greater than the rest."—Id.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XIII.

Oss. 1.—When separate nominatives are expressed, distinct sentences are formed, and the verbs have not a common construction. Those examples which require a repetition of the nominative might be corrected equally well by Note 5th to Rule 9th.

Oss. 2.—Those parts which are common to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest: as, "Every sincere endeavour to amend shall be assisted, [shall be] accepted, and [shall be] rewarded."

"Honourably do the best you can" [do].—"He thought as I did" [think].—
"You have seen it, but I have not" [seen it].—"If you will go, I will" [go].

NOTES TO RULE XIII.

Note I.—The preterit should not be employed to form the compound tenses, nor should the perfect participle be used for the preterit. Thus: say, "To have gone,"—not, "To have went;" and, "I did it,"—not, "I done it."

Note II.—Care should be taken, to give every verb its appropriate form and signification. Thus: say, "He lay by the fire,"—not, "He laid by the fire;"—"He had entered into the connexion,"—not, "He was entered into the connexion;"—"I would rather stay,"—not, "I had rather stay."

Oss.—Several verbs which resemble each other in form, are frequently confounded: as, to face, to fay; to lay, to lie; to sit, to set; to fall, to fell; to rend, to rent; to rid; to rid; &c. Some others are often misapplied; as, learn, for teach. There are also erroneous forms of some of the compound tenses: as, "We will be convinced," for, "We shall be convinced;"—"If I had have seen him," for, "If I had seen him." All such errors are to be corrected by the foregoing note.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XIII.--VERBS.

They would neither go in themselves, nor suffered others to enter.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the two verbs would go and suffered, which are connected without separate nominatives, do not agree in mood. But according to Rule 18th, "When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed." The sentence is besterorrected by changing suffered to would suffer; (would understood;) thus, They would neither go in themselves, nor suffer others to enter.]

Doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains, and seeketh that which is gone astray?

Did he not tell thee his fault, and entreated thee to forgive him?

If he understands the business, and attend to it, wherein is he deficient?

The day is approaching, and hastens upon us, in which we must give an account of our stewardship.

If thou dost not turn unto the Lord, but forget him who remembered thee in thy distress, great will be thy condemnation.—Barclay.

There are a few who have kept their integrity to the Lord, and prefer his truth to all other enjoyments.

This report was current yesterday, and agrees with what we heard before.

Virtue is generally praised, and would be generally practised also, if men were wise.

[•] Errors under this rule may generally be corrected in three ways: 1. By changing the first verb, to agree with the second—2. By changing the second verb, to agree with the first—3. By inserting the nominative. The form preferred, is in the Key.

Under Note 1.—Preterits and Participles.

He would have went with us, if we had invited him. They have chose the part of honour and virtue. He soon begun to be weary of having nothing to do. Somebody has broke my slate. I seen him when he done it.

Under Note 2.—Adapt Form to Sense.

He was entered into the conspiracy. The American planters grow cotton and rice. The report is predicated on truth. I entered the room and set down. Go and lay down, my son.

With such books, it will always be difficult to learn children to read.

RULE XIV.—PARTICIPLES.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or else are governed by prepositions: as, Elizabeth's tutor, at one time paying her a visit, found her employed in reading Plato."—Hume.

EXCEPTION FIRST.

A participle sometimes relates to a preceding phrase or sentence, of which it forms no part; as,

"But ever to do ill our sole delight, As being the contrary to his high will."-Milton.

EXCEPTION SECOND.

With an infinitive denoting being or action in the abstract, a participle is sometimes also taken abstractly; (that is, without reference to any particular noun, pronoun, or other subject;) as, "To seem compelled, is disagreeable."—"To keep always praying aloud, is plainly impossible."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XIV.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XIV.

OBS. 1.—To this rule there are properly no other exceptions; for we cannot agree with Murray that it is strictly correct to make participles in ing the subjects or objects of verbs, while they retain the government and adjuncts of participles; as, "Not attending to this rule, is the cause of a very common error."—Murray's Key. "He abhorred being in debt."—Ibid. "Cavilling and objecting upon any subject, is much easier than clearing up difficulties."—Bp. Butter. This mixed and erroneous construction of the participle, is a great blemish in the style of several English authors. It is at best a useless anomaly, which it is always easy to avoid; as, "Inattention to this rule is the cause of a very common error."—"He abhorred debt."—"To cavil and object upon any subject is much easier than to clear up difficulties."

OBS. 2.—The word to which the participle relates, is sometimes understood; as, "Granting this to be true, ask what is to be inferred from it?"—Murray. That is, "I granting this to be true, ask what is to be inferred from it?"—"The very chin was, [I,] modestly speaking, [azy,] as long as my whole face."—Addison. Some grammarians have erroneously taught that such participles are put absolute.

OBS. 8.—Participles are almost always placed after the words on which their construction depends, but sometimes they are introduced before them; as, "Immur'd in cypress shades, a sorcerer dwells."-Milton.

NOTES TO RULE XIV.

Note I.—Active Participles have the same government as the verbs from which they are derived; the preposition of, therefore, should never be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it. Thus, in phrases like the following, of is improper: "Keeping of one day in seven,"-"By preaching of repentance,"-"They left beating of Paul."

One.—When participles are compounded with something that does not beone to the verb, they become adjectives; and, as such, they cannot govern an object after them. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate: "When Caius did any thing unbecoming his dignity."—Jones's Church History. Such errors are to be corrected either by Note 15th to Rule 4th, or by changing the particle prefixed; as, "Unbecoming to his dignity," or, "Not becoming his dignity."

Note II.—When a transitive participle is converted into a noun, of must be inserted to govern the object following.

noun, of must be inserted to govern the object following.

One. 1.—An imperfect or a compound participle, preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, becomes a verbal noun; and, as such, it cannot govern an object after it. A word which may be the object of the participle in its proper construction, requires the preposition of, to connect it with the verbal noun; as, 1. The Participle: "Worshiping idols, —In Jews sinned."—"Thus worshiping idols,—In worshiping idols,—or, By worshiping idols, they sinned." 2. The Verbal Noun: "The worshiping of idols,—or, Their worshiping of idols, as sinful."—"In the worshiping of idols, there is sin."

Oss. 2.—When the use of the preposition produces ambiguity or harshness, the expression must be varied. Thus, the sentence, "He mentions Newton's writing of a commentary," is both ambiguous and awkward. If the preposition be omitted, the word writing will have a double construction, which is inadmissible. Some would say, "He mentions Newton writing a commentary." This is still worse; because it makes the leading word in sense the adjunct in construction. The meaning may be correctly expressed thus: "He mentions that Newton wrote a commentary." "By his studying the Scriptures, he became wise." Here his serves only to render the senence incorrect: all such possessives are to be expunged by Note 5th to Rule 19th. 19th.

Oss. 3.—We sometimes find a participle that takes the same case after as before it, converted into a verbal noun, and the latter word retained unchanged in connexion with it; as, "I have some recollection of his father's being a judge."—"To prevent its being a dry detail of terms."—Buck. The noun after the verbal, is in apposition with the possessive going before. Nouns that are in apposition with the possessive case, do not admit the possessive sigs. But the above-mentioned construction is anomalous, and perhaps it would be better to avoid it; thus: "I have some recollection that his father was a judge."—"To prevent it from being a dry detail of terms."

Oss. 4.—The verbal noun should not be accompanied by any adjuncts of the verb or participle, unless they be taken into composition; as, "The hypocrite's hope is like the giving-up of the ghost." The following phrase is therefore inaccurate: "For the more easily reading of large numbers." Yet if we say, "For reading large numbers the more easily," the construction is different, and not inaccurate.

Normally.

A posticiple should not be used where the infine.

Note III.—A participle should not be used where the infin-

itive mood, the verbal noun, a common substantive, or a phrase equivalent, will better express the meaning.

Oss. 1.—Participles that have become nouns, may be used as such with or without the article; as, spelling, reading, writing, drawing. But we sometimes find those which retain the government and the adjuncts of participles, used as nouns before or after verbe; as, "Exciting such disturbances, is unlawful."—"Rebellion is rising against government." This mongrel construction is liable to ambiguity, and ought to be avoided. The infinitive mood, the verbal or some other noun, or a clause introduced by the conjunction that, will generally express the idea in a better manner; as, "To excite such disturbances,—The exciting of such disturbances,—The exciting of such disturbances,—The exciting of such disturbances,—The excitation of such disturbances,—The to mointaitive, may be used in stead of the participle in infig, relating to the nominative, may be used in stead of the infinitive connected to the verb; as, "So when they continued asking him."—John, viii, 7. Here continued is intransitive, and asking relates to they. Greek, 2a the infunitive propriess our of the verb; as a transitive, and asking relates to they. Greek, 2a the infunitive propriess earn." But in sentences like the following, the participle seems to be improperly made the object of the verb: "I intend doing it."—"I remember meeting him." Verbs do not govern participles.

him." Better, "I intend to do it."—"I remember to have met him." Verbs do not govern participles.

Oss. 3.—After verbs of beginning, omitting, and avoiding, some writers employ the participle in English, though the analogy of general grammar evidently requires in such cases the infinitive or a noun; as, "It is now above three years since he began printing."—Dr. Adam's Pref. to Rom. Antiquities. "He omits giving an account of them."—Tooks's Div. of Purley, Vol. i, p. 251. "He studied to avoid expressing himself too severely. "Murray's Gram., 800, Vol. i, p. 194. If these examples are good English, (for the point is questionable,) the verbs are all intransitive, and the participles relate to the nominatives going before, as in the text quoted in the preceding observation. But Murray, not understanding this construction, or not obrelate to the nominatives going before, as in the text quoted in the preceding observation. But Murray, not understanding this construction, or not observing what verbs admit of it, has very unskillfully laid it down as a rule, that, "The participle with its adjuncts, may be considered as a substantive phrase in the objective case, governed by the preposition or verb;" whereas he himself, on the preceding page, had adopted from Louth a different doctrine, and cautioned the learner against treating words in ing, "as if they were of an amphibious species, partly nouns and partly verbs;" that is, "partly nouns and partly participles;" for, according to Murray, participles are verbs. The term "substantive phrase" is a solecism, invented merely to designate this anomalous construction. Copying Louth again, he defines a phrase to e "two or more words rightly put together;" and whatsoever words are rightly put together, may be regularly parsed. But how can one indivisible word be made two different parts of speech at once? And is not this the situation of every transitive participle that is made either the subject of the object of a verb? Adjuncts never alter either the nature or the construction of the words on which they depend; and participlas in both. The former express actions as things; the laster attribute them to their agents or recipients. attribute them to their agents or recipients.

Note IV.—In the use of participles and of verbal nouns, the leading word in sense, should always be made the leading or governing word in the construction.

Oss.—A participle construed after the nominative or the objective case, is tequivalent to a verbal noun governing the possessive. There is somenot equivalent to a verbal noun governing the possessive. There is sometimes a nice distinction to be observed in the application of these two constructions. For the leading word in sense should not be made the adjunct in construction. The following sentences exhibit a disregard to this principle, and are both inaccurate: "He felt his strength's declining."—"He was sensible of his strength declining." In the former sentence the noun strength should be in the objective case, governed by felt; and in the latter, in the possessive, governed by declining.

Note V.—Participles, in general, however construed, should have a clear reference to the proper subject of the being, action, or passion. The following sentence is therefore faulty: "By giving way to sin, trouble is encountered." This suggests that trouble gives way to sin. It should be, "By giving way to sin, we encounter trouble."

Note VI.—The preterit of irregular verbs should not be used for the perfect participle: as, "A certificate wrote on parchment"—for, "A certificate written on parchment." This

error should be carefully avoided.

Note VII.—Perfect participles being variously formed, care should be taken to express them agreeably to the best usage: thus, earnt, snatcht, checkt, snapt, mixt, tost, are erroneously written for earned, snatched, checked, snapped, mixed, tossed; and holden, foughten, proven, are now mostly superseded by held, fought, proved.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XIV .-- PARTICIPLES.

Examples under Note 1.- Expunge Of.

In forming of his sentences, he was very exact.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the preposition of is used after the participle forming, whose verb does not require it. But, according to Note 1st under Rule 14th, "Participles have the same government as the verbs from which they are derived; the preposition of, therefore, should not be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it." Therefore, of should be omitted; thus, in forming his sentences, he was very exact.]

By observing of truth, you will command respect.

I could not, for my heart, forbear pitying of him.

I heard them discussing of this subject.

By consulting of the best authors, he became learned.

Here are rules, by observing of which, you may avoid error.

Under Note 2.—Insert Of.

Their consent was necessary for the raising any supplies. Thus the saving a great nation devolved on a husbandman. It is an overvaluing ourselves, to decide upon every thing. The teacher does not allow any calling ill names. That burning the capitol was a wanton outrage. May nothing hinder our receiving so great a good. My admitting the fact will not affect the argument. Cain's killing his brother, originated in envy.

Under Note 3.—Change the Expression.

Cæsar carried off the treasures, which his opponent had neglected taking with him.—Goldsmith. It is dangerous playing with edge tools.

I intend returning in a few days.

Suffering needlessly is never a duty.

Nor is it wise complaining.—Cowper.

I well remember telling you so.

Doing good is a Christian's vocation.—H. More.

Piety is constantly endeavouring to live to God. It is earnestly desiring to do his will, and not our own.—Id.

Under Note 4.—The Leading Word.

There is no harm in women knowing about these things.

They did not give notice of the pupil leaving.

The sun's darting his beams through my window, awoke me.

The maturity of the sago tree is known by the leaves being covered with a delicate white powder.

Under Note 5 .- Reference of Participles.

Sailing up the river, the whole town may be seen. Being conscious of guilt, death becomes terrible. By yielding to temptation, our peace is sacrificed. In loving our enemies, no man's blood is shed. By teaching the young, they are prepared for usefulness.

Under Note 6.—Preterits for Participles.

A nail well drove will support a great weight. See here a hundred sentences stole from my work. I found the water entirely froze, and the pitcher broke. Being forsook by my friends, I had no other resource.

Under Note 7 .- Form of Participles.

Till by barbarian deluges o'erflown.

Like the lustre of diamonds sat in gold.

A beam ethereal, sullied and absorpt.

With powerless wings around them wrapt.

Error learnt from preaching, is held as sacred truth.

RULE XV.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs: as, "Any passion that habitually discomposes our temper, or unfits us for properly discharging the duties of life, has most certainly gained a very dangerous ascendency."—Blair.

EXCEPTION FIRST.

The adverbs yes and yea, expressing a simple affirmation, and the adverbs

no and nay, expressing a simple negation, are always independent. Thev generally answer a question, and are equivalent to a whole sentence. Is it clear, that they ought to be called adverbs? No.

EXCEPTION SECOND.

The word amen, which is commonly called an adverb, is often used independently at the beginning or end of a declaration or prayer; and is itself a prayer, meaning, so let it be.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XV.

Oss. 1.—On this rule *Dr. Adam* remarks, "Adverbs sometimes likewise quality substantives," and gives Latin examples of the following import: "Homer plainty an orator;"—"Truty Metellus;"—"Themorrow morning;"—"Yesterday morning;" But this doctrine is not well proved by such imperfect phrases, nor can it ever be consistently admitted; because it destroys

ness phrases, nor can it ever be consistently admitted; because it destroys the characteristic difference between an adjective and an advert.

One. 2.—Whenever any of those words which are commonly used adverbially, are made to relate directly to nouns or pronouns, they must be reckoned adjectives, and parsed by Rule 4th; as, "The above* verbs."—Dr. Adam. "God only,"—Bible. "He alone."—Id. "A far country,"—Id. "No wine,—No new thing,—No greater joy."—Id. "Nothing else."—Blair. "To-morrow noon."—Scott. "This beneath world."—Shak. "Calamity enough."

The of Sulleyst "My kitche way."

Obs. 3.—When words of an adverbial character are used after the manner or so, o,—when words of an adverbial character are used after the manner of nouns, they must be parsed as nouns and not as adverbe: as, "The Son of God—was not yea and nay, but in him was yea,"—Bible. "For a great while to come."—Id. "On this perhaps, this peradventure infamous for lies."—Young. "From the extremest upward of thine head."—Shat. "Prate of my whereacost."—Id. "An eternal now does always last."—Couley. "Dispersions of a sampled of a "Vorce". course requires an animated no."—Cowper.

Oss. 4.—Adverbs sometimes relate to verbs understood; as, "The former has written correctly; but the latter, elegantly." "And, [I say] truly, if they had been mindful of that country from whence they came out, they

might have had opportunity to have returned."—Heb., xi, 15.

Oss. 5.—To abbreviate expressions, and give them vivacity, verbs of self-motion (as go, come, rise, get, &c.) are sometimes suppressed, being suggested to the mind by an emphatic adverb; as,

"I'll hence to London on a serious matter."—Shakepeare.

"Pil in. 1'll in. Follow your friend's counsel. 1'll in."—Id.
"Away old man; give me thy hand; away."—Id.
"Would you youth and beauty stay,
Love hath wings, and will away."—Waller.
"Up, up, Glentarkin! rouse thee, ho!"—W. Scott.

Obs. 6.- Most conjunctive adverbs relate to two verbs at the same time, and thus connect the two clauses; as, "And the rest will I set in order when I come."—1 Cor., xi, 34. Here when is an adverb of time, relating to the two verbs, will set and come; the meaning being, "And the rest will I set in order at the time at which I come."

NOTES TO RULE XV.

Note I.—Adverbs must be placed in that position which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable.

^{*} Murray and Ms copyints strongly condemn this use of above, and we do not contend for it; but, both he and they, (as well as others,) have repeatedly employed the word in this manner: as, "The above construction."—Murray's Gram., 8vo, p. 149. "The above instances,"—p. 90. "The above rule."—p. 370. "In such instances as the above."—p. 24. "The same as the above."—p. 66.

Oss.—For the placing of adverbs, no definite general rule can be given. Those which relate to adjectives, immediately precede them; and those which belong to compound verbs, are commonly placed after the first auxiliary.

Note II.—Adverbs should not be used as adjectives; nor should they be employed, when quality is to be expressed, and not manner: as, "The soonest time;"-" Thine often infirmities:"-" It seems strangely." All these are wrong.

Note III.—With a verb of motion, most grammarians prefer hither, thither, and whither, to here, there, and where, which are in common use, and perhaps allowable, though not so good; as, "Come hither Charles,"—or, "Come here."

Note IV .- To the adverbs hence, thence, and whence, the preposition from is frequently (though not with strict propriety)

prefixed. It is well to omit all needless words.

Note V.—The adverb how should not be used before the conjunction that, nor in stead of it; as, "He said how he would

go." Expunge how. This is a vulgar error.

Note VI.—The adverb no should not be used with reference to a verb or a participle. Such expressions as, "Tell me whether you will go or no," are therefore improper: no should be not; for "go" is understood after it.

Oss.—No is sometimes an adverb of degree; and as such it has this peculiarity, that it can relate only to comparatives: as, "No more,"—"No better,"—"No greater,"—"No sooner." When this word is prefixed to a noun, it is clearly an adjective, corresponding to the Latin nullus; as, "No clouds, no vapours intervene."—Dyer.

Note VII.—A negation, in English, admits but one negative word: as, "I could not wait any longer,"—not, "no longer." Double negatives are vulgar.

Oss. 1.—The repetition of a negative word or clause, strengthens the negation; as, "No, no, no." But two negatives in the same clause, destroy the negation, and render the meaning affirmative; as, "Nor did they not perceive their evil plight."—Milton. That is, they did perceive it.

Obs. 2.—Ever and never are directly opposite in sense, and yet they are frequently confounded and misapplied even by respectable writers; as "Seldom, or never, can we expect," &c.—Blair's Lectures, p. 805. "Seldom, or ever, did any one rise," &c.—Ibid., p. 272. Here never is right, and ever is wrong. But as the negative adverb applies only to time, ever is preferable to never, in sentences like the following: "Now let man reflect but never so little on himself."—Burlamaqui, p. 29. "Which will not hearken to the voice of charmers, charming never so wisely."—Ps., lviii, 5. For the phrase ever so, (which ought perhaps to be written as one word,) is a very common expression, denoting degree, however great or small; as, "everso little"—"everso wisely." And it seems to be this, and not time, that is intended in the last two examples. the last two examples.

Oss. 8.—By the customary (but faulty) omission of the negative before but, that conjunction has acquired the adverbial sense of only; and it may, when used with that signification, be called an adverb. Thus, the text, "He hath not grieved me but in part," [2 Cor., ii, 5,] might drop the negative, and still convey the same meaning: "He hath grieved me but in part."

[&]quot;Reason itself, but gives it edge and power."—Pops. "Born but to die, and reasoning but to err."—Id.

PALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XV.-ADVERBS.

Examples under Note 1 .- The Placing of Adverbs.

We were received kindly.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the adverb kindly is not in the most suitable place. But, according to Note 1st under Eule 15th, "Adverbs must be placed in that position which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable." The sentence will be improved by placing kindly before received; thus, We were kindly received.]

The work will be never completed.

We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.

It is impossible continually to be at work.

He impertinently behaved to his master.

The heavenly bodies are in motion perpetually.

Not only he found her busy, but pleased and happy even.

Under Note 2.—Adverbs for Adjectives.

Give him a soon and decisive answer.

When a substantive is put absolutely.

Such expressions sound harshly.

Such events are of seldom occurrence.

Velvet feels very smoothly.

Under Note 3.—Here for Hither, &c.

Bring him here to me.

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I shall go there again in a few days.

Where are they all riding in so great haste?

Under Note 4 .- From Hence, &c.

From hence it appears that the statement is incorrect. From thence arose the misunderstanding.

Do you know from whence it proceeds?

Under Note 5 .- The Adverb How.

You see how that not many are required. I knew how that they had heard of his misfortunes. He remarked, how time was valuable.

Under Note 6.—The Adverb No.

Know now, whether this be thy son's coat or no. Whether he is in fault or no, I cannot tell.

I will ascertain whether it is so or no.

Under Note 7 .- Double Negatives.

I will not by no means entertain a spy.

Nobody never invented nor discovered nothing, in no way to be compared with this.

Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise. I did not like neither his temper nor his principles. Nothing never can justify ingratitude.

RULE XVI.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions connect either words or sentences: as, "Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between me and thee, and between my herdmen and thy herdmen; for we are brethren."—Gen., xiii, 8.

EXCEPTION FIRST.

The conjunction that sometimes serves merely to introduce a sentence which is made the subject of a verb; as, "That mind is not matter, is certain."

EXCEPTION SECOND.

When two corresponding conjunctions occur, in their usual order, the former should be parsed as referring to the latter, which is more properly the connecting word; as, "Neither sun nor stars in many days appeared."—Acts, xxvii, 20.

EXCEPTION THIRD.

Either, corresponding to or, and neither, corresponding to nor not, are sometimes transposed, so as to repeat the disjunction or negation at the end of the sentence; as, "Where then was their capacity of standing, or his either "-Barclay." "It is not dangerous neither."—Bottingbroke. "He is very tall, but not too tall neither."—Spectator.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XVI.

Obs. 1.—Conjunctions that connect particular words, generally join similar Ones. 1.—Conjunctions that common dependence on some other term. Those which connect sentences or clauses, commonly unite one to an other, either as an additional affirmation, or as a condition, a cause, or an end. They are placed ditional affirmation, or as a condition, a cause, or an end. They are placed between the terms which they connect, except there is a transposition, and then they stand before the dependent term.

OBS. 2.—Two or three conjunctions sometimes come together; as,

"What rests, but that the mortal sentence pass "-Milton.

Oss. 8.—Conjunctions should not be unnecessarily socumulated; as, "But and if that evil servant say in his heart."—Matthew, xxiv, 48. Greek, "Eav & tingh rank; dod ho; ketives," &c. Here is no and.
Oss. 4.—The conjunction as often unites words that are in apposition; as, "He offered himself as a journeyman." [See Obs. 5, Rule xx.] So, likewise, when an intransitive verb takes the same case after as before it, by Rule xxi; as, "Johnson soon after engaged as usher in a school."—Murray. "He was employed as wher." This also is a virtual apposition. If after the verb "engaged" we supply himself, where becomes objective, and is in apposition with the pronoun. with the pronoun.

Oss. 5.—As frequently has the force of a relative pronoun; as, "Avoid such as are vicious." "But to as many as received him," &c. "He then read the conditions as follow." Here as represents a noun, and is the subject of a verb. [See Took's Diversions of Purley.] But when a clause, or sentence, is the antecedent, it is better to consider as a conjunction, and to supply the pronoun it; as, "He is angry, as [it] appears by this letter."

Oss. 6.—The conjunction that is frequently understood; as,

"Thou warnst me [that] I have done amiss."—Scott.

Ons. 7.—After than or as expressing a comparison, there is usually an el-

lipsis of some word or words. The construction of the words employed may be known by supplying the ellipsis; as, "She is younger than I" [am].—
"He does nothing who endeavours to do more than [what] is allowed to humanity."—Johnson. "My punishment is greater than [what] I can bear."—Bible.

NOTES TO RULE XVL

Note I.—When two terms connected refer jointly to a third, they must be adapted to it and to each other, both in sense and in form. Thus: in stead of, "It always has, and always will be laudable," say, "It always has been, and it always will be laudable."

Note II.—The disjunctive conjunction less or but, should not be employed where the copulative that, would be more proper: as, "I feared that I should be deserted;" not, "less I should be deserted."

Note III.—After else, other, rather, and all comparatives, the latter term of comparison should be introduced by the conjunction than: as, "Can there be any other than this?"—Harris. "Is not the life more than meat?"—Bible.

NOTE IV.—The words in each of the following pairs, are the proper correspondents to each other; and care should be taken, to give them their right place in the sentence.

1. Though—yet; as, "Though he were dead, yet shall he live."—John, xi, 25.

2. Whether—or; as, "Whether there be few or many."

3. Either—or; as, "He was either ashamed or afraid."

4. Neither—nor; as, "John the Baptist came neither eating bread nor drinking wine."—Luke, vii, 33.

5. Both—and; as, "I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the Barbarians."—Rom., i, 14.

6. Such—as; as, "An assembly such as earth saw never."—Cowner.

7. Such—that; with a finite verb following, to express a consequence: as, "My health is such that I cannot go."

8. As—as; with an adjective or an adverb, to express equality: as, "The peasant is as gay as he."—Couper.

9. As—so; with two verbs, to express equality or proportion: as, "As two are to four, so are six to twelve."

10. So—as; with an adjective or an adverb, to limit the degree by comparison: as, "How can you descend to a thing so base as falsehood?"

11. So—as; with a negative preceding, to deny equality: as, "No lamb was e'er so mild as he."—Langhorne.

12. So—as; with an infinitive following, to express a consequence: as, "These difficulties were so great as to discourage age him."

13. So—that; with a finite verb following, to express a consequence: as, "He was so much injured, that he could not walk."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XVI.-CONJUNCTIONS.

Examples under Note 1.—Two Terms with One.

The first proposal was essentially different and inferior to the second.

[Formule.—Not proper, because the preposition to, is used with joint reference to the two adjectives different and inferior, which require different prepositions. But, according to Note ist under Rule 16th, "When two terms connected refer jointly to a third, they must be adapted to it and to each other, both in sense and in form." The sentence may be corrected thus; The first proposal was essentially different from the second, and inferior to it.]

He has made alterations and additions to the work.

He is more bold, but not so wise, as his companion.

Sincerity is as valuable, and even more so, than knowledge.

I always have, and I always shall be, of this opinion.

What is now kept secret, shall be hereafter displayed and heard in the clearest light.

We pervert the noble faculty of speech, when we use it to the

defaming or to disquiet our neighbours.

Be more anxious to acquire knowledge than of showing it.

The court of chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law.

Under Note 2.—Lest or But for That.

We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened. I do not deny but he has merit.

Are you afraid lest he will forget you?

These paths and bow'rs, doubt not but our joint hands, Will keep from wilderness.—*Milton*.

Under Note 3 .- Prefer Than.

It was no other but his own father.

Have you no other proof except this?

I expected something more besides this.

He no sooner retires but his heart burns with devotion. Such literary filching is nothing else but robbery.

Under Note 4 — Of Correspondents.

Neither despise or oppose what you do not understand. He would not either do it himself nor let me do it. The majesty of good things is such, as the confines of them are reverend.

Whether he intends to do so, I cannot tell. Send me such articles only, that are adapted to this market. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written. No errors are so trivial but they deserve correction. It will improve neither the mind, nor delight the fancy. The one is equally deserving as the other. There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change. Do you think this is so good as that? The relations are so obscure as they require much thought. None is so fierce that dare stir him up. There was no man so sanguine who did not apprehend some ill consequence.

I must be so candid to own that I do not understand it. The book is not as well printed as it ought to be.

So still he sat as those who wait Till judgment speak the doom of fate.—Scott.

RULE XVII.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions show the relations of things: as, "He came from Rome to Paris, in the company of many eminent men, and passed with them through many cities." -Analectic Magazine.

EXCEPTION FIRST.

The preposition to, before an abstract infinitive, and at the head of a phrase which is made the subject of a verb, has no proper antecedent term of relation; as, "To learn to die, is the great business of life."—Dilloyn. "Nevertheless, to abide in the fiesh, is more needful for you."—St. Paul. "To be reduced to poverty, is a great affliction."

EXCEPTION SECOND.

The preposition for, when it introduces its object before an infinitive, and the whole phrase is made the subject of a verb, has properly no antecedent term of relation; as, "For us to learn to die, is the great business of life."—
"Nevertheless, for me to abide in the flesh, is more needful for you."—"For an old man to be reduced to poverty, is a very great affliction."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XVII.

Obs. 1.—In parsing any ordinary preposition, the learner should name the two terms of the relation, and apply the foregoing rule. The principle is simple and etymological, yet not the less important as a rule of syntax. Among tolerable writers, the prepositions exhibit more errors than any other equal number of words. This is probably owing to the careless manner in which they are usually slurred over in parsing.

Obs. 2.—If the learner be at any loss to discover the two terms of relation, let him ask and answer two questions; first, with the interrogative what before the preposition, to find the antecedent; and then, with the same pronoun after the preposition, to find the subsequent term. These questions answered according to the sense, will always give the true terms. If one term is obvious, find the other in this way; as, "Day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night showeth knowledge."—Psal. What unto all the preposition what unto night? Ans. "Showeth unto night." To parse rightly is to understand rightly; and what is well expressed, it is a shame to misunderstand or misinterpret.

Obs. 3.—When a preposition begins or ends a sentence or clause, the terms of relation are transposed; as, "To a studious man, action is a religi".—Burgh. "Science they [the ladies] do not pretend To."—Id. "Until I have done that which I have spoken to thee or."—Gen., xxviii, 15.

Obs. 4.—The former or antecedent term of relation may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, a verb, a participle, or an adverb: the latter or subsequent term may be a noun, a pronoun, a pronominal adjective, an infinitive verb, or an imperfect or preperfect participle. The word governed by the preposition, is always the subsequent term, however placed.

Obs. 5.—Both the terms of relation are usually expressed; though either of them may be understood; as, 1. The former—"All shall know me, [reshound] Fron the least to the greatest."—Heb., viii, 11. [I say] "In a word, it would entirely defeat the purpose."—Blair. 2. The latter—"Opinions and ceremonies [which] they would die ron."—Locks. "In [those] who obtain defence, or who defend."—Pops.

Obs. 6.—The only proper exceptions to the foregoing rule, are those which are inserted above, unless the abstract infinitive used as a predicate is also to be excepted; as, "To reason right, is to submit."—Pops. But here most if not all grammarians would say, the verb is, is the antecedent or governing term. The relation, however, is not such as when we say, "He is to submit;" but, perhaps, to insist on a different mode of parsing theses two infinitives, would be a needless refinement. In relation to the infinitive, Dr. Adam remarks, that the preposition to is often taken absolutely; as, "To confess the truth."—"To proceed." But the secretion is not entirely true now the secretion is not entirely true in or the submit." Adam remarks, that the preposition to is often taken absolutely; as, "To confess the truth."—"To proceed." But the assertion is not entirely true; nor ress the truth. — To proceed. But the assertion is not entirely true; nor are his examples appropriate; for what he and many other grammarians call the infinitive absolute, evidently depends on something understood; and the preposition is surely in no instance independent of what follows it, and therefore never entirely absolute. Prepositions are not to be supposed to have no antecedent term, merely because they stand at the head of a sentence which is made the subject of a verb; for the sentence itself often contains that term, as in the following example: "In what way mind acts upon matter, is unknown." Here in shows the relation between acts and way; because it is suggested, that mind acts IN some way."

Oss. 7.—The preposition (as its name implies) precedes the word which it governs. But, in poetry, the preposition is sometimes placed after its object;

"Wild Carron's lonely woods among."—Langhorne.

Oss. 8.—In the familiar style, a preposition governing a relative or an interrogative pronoun, is often separated from its object, and connected with the other term of relation; as, "Whom did he speak to?" But it is more dignified, and in general more graceful, to place the preposition before the pronoun; as, "To whom did he speak?"

Oss. 9.—Two prepositions sometimes come together; as, "Lambeth is come against Westimpster. Whereast

over against Westminster-abbey."-Murray.

"And from before the lustre of her face."—Thomson. "Blows mildew from between his shrivel'd lips.—Cowper.

These should be written as compounds, and taken together in parsing; for if we parse them separately, we must either call the first an adverb, or sup-pose some very awkward ellipsis.

Oss. 10.—Two separate prepositions have sometimes a joint reference to the same noun: as, "He boasted of, and contended for, the privilege." This construction is formal, and scarcely allowable, except in the law style. It is better to say, "He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it."

Oss. 11.—The preposition into, expresses a relation produced by motion or change; and in, the same relation, without reference to motion: hence, "to walk into the garden," and, "to walk in the garden," are very different.

Oss. 12.—Between or betwixt is used in reference to two things or parties: among or amidst. in reference to a greater number, or to something by which

among or amidst, in reference to a greater number, or to something by which an other may be surrounded; as,

"Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear."—Byron.
"The host between the mountain and the shore."—K.

"To meditate amongst decay, and stand A ruin amidst ruins."—Id.

NOTES TO RULE XVII.

Note I.—Prepositions must be chosen and employed agreeably to the usage and idiom of the language, so as rightly to express the relations intended.

Note II.—An *ellipsis* or *omission* of prepositions is inelegant, except in those phrases in which long and general use has sanctioned it. In the following sentence, of is needed.

"——— I will not flatter you, That all I see in you is worthy love."— Shak.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XVII. - PREPOSITIONS.

Examples under Note 1.—Choice of Prepositions.

Her sobriety is no derogation to her understanding.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the relation between derogation and understanding is not correctly expressed by the preposition to. But, according to Note 1st under Rule 17th, "Prepositions must be chosen and employed agreeably to usage and idiom of the language, so as rightly to express the relations intended." This relation would be better expressed by from; thus, Her sobriety is no derogation from her understanding.]

She finds a difficulty of fixing her mind. This affair did not fall into his cognizance. He was accused for betraying his trust. There was no water, and he died for thirst. I have no occasion of his services. You may safely confide on him. I entertain no prejudice to him. You may rely in what I tell you. Virtue and vice differ widely with each other. This remark is founded in truth. After many toils, we arrived to our journey's end. I will tell you a story very different to that. Their conduct is agreeable with their profession. Excessive pleasures pass from satiety in disgust. I turned into disgust from the spectacle. They are gone in the meadow. Let this be divided between the three. The shells were broken in pieces. The deception has passed among every one. They never quarrel among each other. Amidst every difficulty, he persevered. Let us go above stairs. I was at London, when this happened. We were detained to home, and disappointed in our walk. This originated from mistake.

The Bridewell is situated to the west of the City-Hall, and it has no communication to the other buildings. I am disappointed of the work; it is very inferior from what I expected.

Under Note 2.—Omission of Prepositions.

Be worthy me, as I am worthy you.—Dryden. They cannot but he unworthy the care of others. Thou shalt have no portion on this side the river. Sestos and Abydos were exactly opposite each other. Ovid was banished Rome by his patron Augustus.

RULE XVIII.—INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections have no dependent construction: as, "O/ let not thy heart despise me."—Johnson.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XVIII.

Oss. 1.—To this rule there are properly no exceptions. Though interjections are sometimes uttered in close connexion with other words, yet, being mere signs of passion and feeling, they cannot have any strict grammatical relation, or dependence according to the sense. Being destitute alike of relation, agreement, and government, they must be used independently, if used at all.

Oss. 2.—The interjection O is common to many languages, and is frequently prefixed to nouns or pronouns put absolute by direct address; as, "Arise, O Lord; O God, lift up thine hand."—Psalms, x, 12. "O ye of little faith!"—Mat., vi, 30. The Latin and Greek grammarians, therefore, made this interjection the sign of the vocative case; which is the same as the

made this interjection the sign of the vocative case; which is the same as the nominative put absolute by address in English have no government."—Lowth. When a word not in the nominative absolute, follows an interjection, as part of an imperfect exclamation, its construction depends on something understood; as, "Ah me."—that is, "Ah! pity me."—"Alas for them!"—that is, "Ah!s! I sigh for them."—"O for that wurning voice!"—that is, "O! how I long for that warning voice!"—"O! that they were wise!" Such expressions, however, lose much of their vivacity, when the ellipsis is supplied.

Oss. 4.—Interjections may be placed before or after a simple sentence, and sometimes between its parts; but they are seldom allowed to interrupt the connexion of words closely united in sense. Murray's definition of an interjection is faulty, and directly contradicted by his example: "O virtue! how amiable thou art!"

CHAPTER III.—GOVERNMENT.

Government has respect only to nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles, and prepositions; the other five parts of speech neither govern nor are governed. The governing words, may be either nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles,

or prepositions; the words governed are either nouns. pronouns, verbs, or participles. In parsing, the learner must remember that the rules of government are not to be applied to the governing words, but to those which are governed; and which, for the sake of brevity, are often technically named after the particular form or modification assumed; as, possessives, objectives, same cases, infinitives, gerundives. Taken in this way, none of the following rules can have any exceptions.

Oss.—The Arrangement of words, (which is treated of in the observations on the rules of construction,) is an important part of syntax, in which not only the beauty but the propriety of language is intimately concerned, and to which particular attention should therefore be paid in composition. But only the beauty but the polynomial therefore be paid in composition. But it is to be remembered, that the mere collocation of words in a sentence never affects the method of parsing them; on the contrary, the same words, however placed, are always to be parsed in precisely the same way, so long as they express precisely the same meaning. In order to show that we have parsed any part of an inverted or difficult sentence rightly, we are at liberty to declare the meaning by any arrangement which will make the construction more obvious, provided we retain both the sense and all the words unaltered; but to drop or alter any word, is to pervert the text and to make a mockery of parsing. Grammar rightly learned, enables one to understand both the sense and the construction of whatsoever is rightly written; and he who reads what he does not understand, reads to little purpose. With great who reads what he does not understand, reads to little purpose. With great indignity to the muses, several pretenders to grammar have foolishly taught, that, "in parsing poetry, in order to come at the meaning of the author, the learner will find it necessary to transpose his language."—Kirkham's Gr., p. 166. See also Merchant, Wilcox, Hull, and others, to the same effect. To what purpose can he transpose a sentence, who does not first see what it means, and how to explain or parse it as it stands?

RULE XIX.—POSSESSIVES.

A noun or a pronoun in the Possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed; as,

"Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine;

"Touch'd by thy hand, again Rome's glories shine."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XIX.

Obs. 1.—Every possessive is governed by some noun expressed or understood, except such as (without the possessive sign) are put in apposition with others so governed; and for every possessive termination there must be a separate governing word. The possessive sign may and must be omitted in certain cases; but it is never omitted by ellipsis, as Murray erroneously teaches. The four lines of Note 2d below, are sufficient to show, in the sufficient to show it was the most one of the sufficient to show it was the most one of the sufficient to show and who was the sufficient to show a sufficient to show and who was the sufficient to show a sufficient t every instance, when it must be used, and when omitted; but Murray, after as many octavo pages on the point, still leaves it undetermined. If a person knows what he means to say, let him express it according to the note, and he shall not err

Obs. 2.—The possessive case generally comes immediately before the gov-"Indy! be thine [i. e. thy walk] the Christian's walk."—Ch. Observer. But to this general principle there are some exceptions: as,

1. When an adjective intervenes; as, "Flora's earliest smells."-Millon.

1. When an adjective intervenes, as, "Fort's earnest sneeds. — attors. "Of Will's last night's lecture." — Spectator.

2. When the possession is affirmed or denied; as, "The book is mine, and not John's." But here the governing noun may be supplied in its proper place; and, in some such sentences, it must be, else a pronoun will be the only governing word: as, "Ye are Christ's [disciples], and Christ is God's"

only governing word: as, "Ie are Unrist's [disciples], and Unrist is God's' [son].—St. Paul.

3. When the case occurs without the sign; as, "In her brother Absalom's house."—Bible. "David and Jonathan's friendship."—"Adam and Eve's morning hymn."—Dr. Ash. "Behold, the heaven, and the heaven of heavens, is the Lord's thy God."—Deut., x, 14.

Oss. 3.—Where the governing noun cannot be easily mistaken, it is often omitted by ellipsis; as, "At the alderman's" [house]—"A book of my brother's" [books]—"A subject of the emperor's" [subjects]. This is the true explanation of all Murray's "double genitives;" for the first noun, being martitive, naturally suggests a plurality of the same kind. partitive, naturally suggests a plurality of the same kind.

Oss. 4.—When two or more nouns of the possessive form are in any way connected, they usually refer to things individually different, but of the same name; and, when such is the meaning, the governing noun is understood wherever the sign is added without it: as,

"From Stiles's pocket into Nokes's" [pocket].—S. Butler.
"Add Nature's, Custom's, Reason's, Passion's strife."—Pope.

Ons. 5.—The possessive sign is sometimes annexed to that part of a compound name, which is, of itself, in the objective case; as, "The captain-of-the-guard's house."—Bible. "The Bard-of-Lomond's lay is done."—Hogg. "Of the Children-of-Israel's half thou shalt take one portion."—Num. xxxi, 30. Such compounds ought always to be written with hyphens, and parsed together as possessives governed in the usual way. The words cannot be ex-

plained separately.

Oss. 6.—In the following phrase, the possessive sign is awkwardly added to a distinct adjective: "In Henry the Eighth's time."—Walker's Key, Introd. p. 11. Better, "In the time of Henry the Eighth." But, in the following line, the adjective elegantly takes the sign; because there is an elliptical of the property of the control o

sis of both nouns:

"The rich man's joys increase, the poor's decay."—Goldsmith.
Oss. 7.—To avoid a concurrence of hissing sounds, the s is sometimes omitted, and the apostrophe alone retained to mark the possessive singular; as, "For conscience sake."—Bible. "Moses minister."—Rid. "Felix room."—Ibid. "Achilles wrath."—Pope. But the elision should be sparingly indulged. It is in general less agreeable than the regular form; as, Hicks for Hicks's,—Barnes' for Barnes's.

Hicks's,—Barnes' for Barnes's.

Oss. 8.—Whatever word or term gives rise to the direct relation of property, and is rightly made to govern the possessive case, must be a nounmust be the name of some substance, quality, state, or action. When therefore other parts of speech assume this relation, they become nouns; as, "Against the day of my burying,"—John, xii, 7. "Of my whereabout."—Shak. "The very head and front of my offending."—Id.

Oss 9.—Some grammarians say, that a participle may govern the possessive case before it, and yet retain the government and adjuncts of a participle; as, "We also properly say, 'This will be the effect of the pupil's composing frequently."—Murray's Gram. "What can be the reason of the committee's having delayed this business?"—Murray's Key. This construction is faulty. because it confounds the properties of different parts of speech, communes a naving actayed this business?"—Murray's Key. This construction is faulty, because it confounds the properties of different parts of speech, and produces a hybridous class between the participle and the noun; "but this," says Lowth, "is inconsistent; let it be either the one or the other, and abide by its proper construction." It is also unnecessary, because the same idea may be otherwise expressed more elegantly; as, "This will be the effect, if the pupil compose frequently."—"Why have the committee delayed this business?"

NOTES TO RULE XIX.

Note I.—In the use of the possessive case, its appropriate

form should be observed: thus, write men's, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs; and not, mens', her's, it's, our's, your's, their's.

Note II.—When nouns of the possessive case, are connected

Note II.—When nouns of the possessive case, are connected by conjunctions, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must always be annexed to such, and such only, as immediately precede the governing noun, expressed or understood; as, "John and Eliza's teacher is a man of more learning than James's or Andrew's."—"For David my servant's sake."—Bible. "Lost in love's and friendship's smile."—Scott.

Note III.—The relation of property may also be expressed by the preposition of and the objective: as, "The will of man;" for, "man's will." Of these forms, we should adopt that which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable; and, by the use of both, avoid an unpleasant repetition of either.

Note IV.—A noun governing the possessive plural, should not be made plural, unless the sense requires it. Thus: say, "We have changed our mind," if only one purpose or opinion is meant.

OBS.—A noun taken figuratively may be singular, when the literal meaning would require the plural: such expressions as, "their face,"—"their head,"—"their head,"—"their head,"—"tour head,"—"our head,"—"our head,"—such mead,"—such mead,"—such mead,"—such mead,"—such mead,"—such mead, "..."

Note V.—The possessive case should not be prefixed to a participle that is not taken in all respects as a noun. The following phrase is therefore wrong: "Adopted by the Goths in their pronouncing the Greek."—Walker's Key, p. 17. Expunge their.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XIX.—POSSESSIVES.

Examples under Note 1.—The Possessive Form,

Thy ancestors virtue is not thine.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the noun ancestors, which is intended for the possessive plural, has not the appropriate form of that case. But, according to Note 1st under Rule 19th, "In the use of the possessive case, its appropriate form should be observed." An apostrophe is required after ancestors; thus, Thy ancestors' virtue is not thine."]

Mans chief good is an upright mind.

I will not destroy the city for ten sake.

Moses rod was turned into a serpent.

They are wolves in sheeps clothing.

The tree is known by it's fruit.

The privilege is not their's, any more than it is your's.

Yet he was gentle as soft summer airs, Had grace for others sins, but none for theirs'.

Under Note 2.—Possessives Connected.

There is but little difference between the Earth and Venus's diameter.

This hat is John, or James's.

The store is opposite to Morris's and Company's. This palace had been the grand Sultan's Mahomet's.

This was the Apostle's Paul's advice.

Were Cain's occupation and Abel the same?

Were Cain and Abel's occupation the same?

Were Cain's and Abel's occupations the same?

Were Cain and Abel's parents the same?

Were Cain's parents and Abel the same?

Was Cain's and Abel's father there?
Were Cain's and Abel's parents there?

Thy Maker's will has placed thee here, A Maker's wise and good.

Under Note 3 .- Choice of Forms.

The world's government is not left to chance.

He was Louis the Sixteenth's son's heir.

The throne we honour is the choice of the people.

We met at my brother's partner's house.

An account of the proceedings of the court of Alexander.

Here is a copy of the Constitution of the Society of Teachers of the city of New York.

Under Note 4.—Nouns with Possessives Plural,

Their healths perhaps may be pretty well secured.—Locke. We all have talents committed to our charges. For your sakes forgave I it, in the sight of Christ. We are, for our parts, well satisfied. The pious cheerfully submit to their lots. Fools think it not worth their whiles to be wise.

Under Note 5.—Possessives with Participles.

I rewarded the boy for his studying so diligently. Have you a rule for your thus parsing the participle? He errs in his giving the word a double construction. By our offending others, we expose ourselves. They deserve our thanks, for their quickly relieving us.

RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case; as "I

found her assisting him."—"Having finished the work, I submit it."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XX.

Ons. 1.—Every objective is governed by some verb or participle, according to this Rule, or by some preposition, according to Rule 22d; except such as are put in apposition with others according to Rule 3d, or after an infinitive or participle according to Rule 21st; as, "Like him of Gath, Goliath."—
"They took him to be me."

OBS. 2.—The objective case generally follows the governing word: but when it is emphatic, it often precedes the nominative; as, "Me he restored to mine office, and him he hanged."—Gen., xli, 13. "Home he had not."—Thomson. "This point they have gained." In poetry it is sometimes placed between the nominative and the verb; as, "His daring foe securely him defled."—Millon. "The broom its yellow leaf hath shed."—Langhorne. A relative or an interrogative pronoun is commonly placed at the head of its clause, and of course it precedes the verb which governs it; as, "I am Jesus, sohom thou persecutest."—Acts. "Whom will the meeting appoint?"

Obs. 3.—All active-transitive verbs have some noun or pronoun for their object. Though verbs are often followed by the infinitive mood, or a de-

object. Inough veros are often followed by the infinitive mood, or a dependent clause, forming a part of the logical predicate; yet these terms, being commonly introduced by a connecting particle, do not constitute such an object as is contemplated in our definition of a transitive verb. If, in the sentence, "Boys love to play," the verb is transitive, as several grammarians affarm; why not also in "Boys like to play," "Boys delight to play," "Boys seem to play," "Boys cease to play," and the like! The construction is precisely the same. It must, however, be confessed, that some verbs which thus take the infinitive after them, cannot otherwise be intransitive.

OBS. 4.—The word that, which is often employed to introduce a clause, is, by some grammarians, considered as a pronoun, representing the clause which follows it. And their opinion seems to be warranted both by the origin and the general import of the particle. But in conformity to general custom, and to his own views of the practical purposes of grammatical analysis, the author has ranked it with the conjunctions. And he thinks it better, to call those verbs intransitive, which are followed by that and a dependent clause, than to supply the very frequent ellipses which the other explanation supposes. To explain it as a conjunction, connecting an active-transitive verb and its object, (as several respectable grammarians do,) appears to involve some inconsistency.

One. 5.—Active-transitive verbs are often followed by two objectives in apposition: as, "Thy saints proclaim these king."—Coupper. "The Author of my being formed me man."—Murray. "And God called the firmament Heaven."—Bible. And, in such a construction, the direct object is sometimes placed before the verb; as, "And Simon he surnamed Peter."—Mark,

Oss. 6.—When a verb is followed by two words in the objective case, which are neither in apposition nor connected by a conjunction, one of them is governed by a preposition understood; as, "I paid [to] him the money."

—"They offered [to] me a exet."—"He asked [of] them the question."—"I yielded, and unlock'd [to] her all my heart."—Millon.

Oss. 7.—In expressing such sentences passively, the object of the preposition is sometimes erroneously assumed for the nominative; as, "He was paid the money," in stead of, "The money was paid [to] him."

NOTES TO RULE XX.

Note I.—Those verbs and participles which require an object. should not be used intransitively; as, "She affects [kindness, in order to ingratiate [herself] with you."-" I will not allow of it." Expunge of, that allow may govern the pronoun it.

Note II.—Those verbs and participles which do not admit an object, should not be used transitively; as, "The planters grow cotton." Say raise, or cultivate.

Oss.—Some verbs will govern a kindred noun, or its pronoun, but no other; as, "He lived a virtuous life."—"Hear, I pray you, this dream which I have dreamed."—Gen., xxxvii, 6.

Note III.—The passive verb should always take for its subject the direct object of the active-transitive verb from which it is derived; as, (Active) "They denied me this privilege."—(Passive,) "This privilege was denied me,"—not, "I was denied this privilege."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

She I shall more readily forgive.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun she is in the nominative case, and is used as the object of the active-transitive verb shall forgive. But according to Rule 30th, "Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect participles, govern the objective case."—Therefore, she should be her; thus, Her I shall more readily forgive.]

Thou only have I chosen.

Who shall we send on this errand?

My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him. He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

Who should I meet but my old friend!

He accosts whoever he meets.

Whosoever the court favours, is safe.

They that honour me I will honour.

Who do you think I saw the other day?

Under Note 1 .- An Object Required.

The ambitious are always seeking to aggrandize. I must premise with three circumstances. This society does not allow of personal reflections. False accusation cannot diminish from real merit. His servants ye are to whom ye obey.

Under Note 2.—False Transitives.

Good keeping thrives the herd.

We endeavoured to agree the parties.

Being weary, he sat him down.

Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah.

The popular lords did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject.

Under Note 3.—Passive Verbs.

They were refused the benefit of their recantation. Believers are not promised temporal riches. We were shown several beautiful pictures. But, unfortunately, I was denied the favour. You were paid a high compliment. I have never been asked the question.

RULE XXI.—SAME CASES.

Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing: as, "He returned a friend, who came a foe."—Pope. "The child was named John."—"It could not be he."

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXL

OBS. 1.—The verbs described in this rule do not, like active-transitive verbs, require a regimen, or case after them; but their finite tenses may be followed by a nominative, and their infinitives and participles by a nominative or an objective, explanatory of a noun or pronoun which precedes them. And as these cases belong after the verb or participle, they may in a certain sense be said to be governed by it. But the rule is perhaps more properly a rule of agreement; the word which follows the verb or participle, may be said to form a simple concord with that which precedes it, as if the two were

in apposition. [See Rule 8d.]
One. 2.—In this rule the terms after and before refer rather to the order of Oss. 2.—In this rule the terms after and before refer rather to the order of the sense and construction, than to the placing of the words. The proper subject of the verb is the nominative to it, or before it, by Rule 2d; and the other nominative, however placed, belongs after it, by Rule 2lst. In general, however, the proper subject precedes the verb, and the other word follows it, agreeably to the literal sense of the rule. But when the proper subject is placed after the verb, as in the nine instances specified under Rule 2d, the explanatory nominative, is commonly introduced still later; as, "But be thou an example of the believers."—I Tim., iv, 12.
Oss. 3.—In interrogative sentences, the terms are usually transposed, or both are placed after the verb; as,

"Whence, and what art thou, execrable shape!"—Milton.
"Art thou that traitor angel? art thou he?"—Idem.

Ons. 4.—In a declarative sentence, there may be a rhetorical or poetical transposition of the terms; as, "I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame."—Job, xxix, 15.

"Far other scene is Thrasymenè now."—Byron.

One 5.—In some peculiar constructions, both words naturally come before the verb; as, "I know not who she is."—" Inquire thou whose son the stripling is."—I Sam., xvii, 56. "Man would not be the creature which he now is."—Blair. "I could not guess who it should be."—Addison. And they are sometimes placed in this manner by hyperbaton, or transposition; as, "Yet He it is."—Young. "No contemptible orator he was."—Dr. Blair.

One 6.—As infinitives and participles have no nominatives of their own, such as are not transitive in themselves, may take different cases after them; and, in order to determine what case it is that follows them, the learner must carefully observe what preceding word denotes the same person or thing. This word being often remote and sometimes understood, the sense

is the only clew to the construction. Examples: "Who then can bear the thought of being an outcast from his presence?"—Addison. "I cannot help being so passionate an admirer as I am."—Steele. "To recommend what the soberer part of mankind look upon to be a trifle."—Id. "It would be a romantic madness, for a man to be a lord in his closet."—Id. "To affect to be a lord in one's closet, would be a romantic madness." In this last sentence, lord is in the objective after to be; and madness, in the nominative after would be.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXI.—SAME CASES.

We did not know that it was him.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun him, which belongs after the neuter verb ses, is in the objective case, and does not agree with the pronoun it, which belongs before it as the nominative; both words referring to the same thing. But, according to Rule 21st, "Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their perchiples, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing." Therefore, him should be he; thus, We did not know that it was he.]

We thought it was thee.

I would act the same part, if I were him.

It could not have been her.

It is not me, that he is angry with.

They believed it to be I.

It was thought to be him.

If it had been her, she would have told us.

We know it to be they.

Whom do you think it is?

Who do you suppose it to be?

We did not know whom they were.

Thou art him whom they described.

Impossible! it can't be me.

Whom did he think you were?

Whom say ye that I am?

RULE XXII.—OBJECTIVES.

Prepositions govern the Objective case: as, "Truth and good are one:

And beauty dwells in them, and they in her, With like participation."—Akenside.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXII.

ins. 1.—Most of the prepositions may take the imperfect participle for their object; and some, the preperfect, or pluperfect as, "On opening the trial, they accused him of having defrauded them."—"A quick wit, a nice judgement, &c., could not raise this man above being received only upon the foot of contributing to mirth and diversion."—Steele. And the preposition to to often followed by an infinitive. But, as prepositions, when they introduce declinable words, or words that have cases, always govern the edicaties, there are properly no exceptions to the foregoing rule.—Let not the learner suppose, that infinitives or participles, when they are governed by prepositions, are therefore in the objective case; for case is no attribute of either of them. They are governed as participles or as infinitives, and not as cases. The more fact

of government is so far from creating the modification governed, that it

necessarily presupposes it to exist.

Oss. 2.—Prepositions are sometimes elliptically construed with adjectives; as, in vain, in secret, at first, on high; i. e., in a vain manner, in secret places, at the first time, on high places. Such phrases imply time, place, degree, or manner, and are equivalent to adverbs. In parsing, the learner may supply the ellipsis.

One. 8.—In a few instances prepositions precede adverbs; as, at once, from above, for ever. These should be united, and parsed as adverbe, or else the adverb must be parsed as a noun, according to observation 3d on Rule 15th.

One. 4.—When nouns of time or measure are connected with verbs or adverbed to the connected with the connected with the connected with the

One. 4.—When nouns of time or measure are connected with verbs or adjectives, the prepositions which govern them, are generally suppressed: as, "We rode sixty miles that day," that is, "through sixty miles on that day," —"The wall is ten feet high;" that is, "high to ten feet." In parsing, supply the ellipsis; or else you must take the time or measure adverbially, as relating to the verb or adjective qualified by it. Such expressions as, "A board of six feet long,"—"A boy of twelve years old," are wrong. Strike out of; or say, "A board of six feet in length,"—"A boy of twelve years of age."

One. 5.—After the adjective "The same connected with verbs or adjective to the same connected with verbs or adjective to the length,"—"A boy of twelve years of age."

one 5.—After the adjectives like, near, and nigh, the preposition to or unio is often understood; se, "It is like to or unio silver."—Allen. "How like the former!"—Dryden. "Near yonder copse."—Goldsmith. "Nigh this recess."—Garth. As similarity and proximity are relations, and not qualities, it might seem proper to call like, near, and nigh, prepositions; and some grammarians have so classed the last two. Dr. Johnson seems to be inconsistent in calling near a preposition in the phrase, "So near thy heart," and an adjective, in the phrase. "Being near their master!" We have not placed them with the prepositions for four reasons: (1.) Because they are sometimes compared; (2.) Because they sometimes have adverbe evidently relating to them; (3.) Because the preposition to or unto is sometimely reasons after them; and, (4.) Because the words which usually stand for them in the learned languages, are clearly adjectives. Like, when it expresses similarity of manner, and near and nigh, when they express proximity of degree, are adverbe. degree, are adverbe.

Oss. 6.—The word worth is often followed by an adjective, or a participle, which it appears to govern; as, "If your arguments produce no conviction, they are worth nothing to me."—Beattie. "To reign is worth ambition."—Milton. "This is life indeed, life worth preserving."—Addison. It is not easy to determine to what part of speech worth here belongs. Dr. Johnson calls it an adjective, but says nothing of the object after it, which some suppose to be governed by of understood. In this supposition, it is gratuitously assumed, that worth is equivalent to worthy, after which of should be expressed; as, "Whatsoever is worthy of their love, is worth their anger."—Denham. But, as worth uppears to have no certain characteristic of an adjective, some call it a noun, and suppose a double ellipsis; as, "The book is [of the] worth [of] a dollar." This is still less satisfactory; and, as the whole appears to be mere guess-work, we see no good reason why worth is Obs. 6.—The word worth is often followed by an adjective, or a participle, whole appears to be mere guess-work, we see no good reason why worth is not a preposition, governing the noun or participle. If an advert precede coord, it may as well be referred to the foregoing verb, as when it occurs

before any other preposition.

One. 7.—Both Dr. Johnson and Horne Tooke, (who never agreed if they could help it,) unite in saying that worth, in the phrases, "Wo worth the man," "Wo worth the day," &c., is from the imperative of the Sazon werb sarrythan or everthan, to be; i. e., "Wo be [to] the man," or, "Wo betide the man," &c. And the latter affirms, that, as by is from the imperative of bean and the sazon were the man," and the latter affirms that, as by is from the imperative of bean and the sazon which the man is the sazon which was the sazon which the sazon which the sazon which the sazon which where sazon which we sazon which the sazon which where sazon which we sazon which where sazon which we sazon which where sazon which which we sazon which we sazon which we sazon which we sazon which which we sazon which will be sazon which which we sazon which we sazon which we saz to be, so with (though admitted to be sometimes from withan, to join) is often no other than this same imperative verb worth or worth; if so, the words by, with, and worth, were originally synonymous, and should now be referred to one and the same class. The dative case, or oblique object, which they governed as Szozo verbs, becomes their proper object, when taken as English prepositions; and in this also they appear to be alike.

(182. 8.—After verbs of giving, procuring, and some others, there is usually

an ellipsis of to or for before the objective of the person; as, "Give [to] him water to drink."—"Buy [for] me a knife." So in the exclamation, "Wo is to me!"

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXII.-OBJECTIVES.

It rests with thou and me to decide.

[FORKULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun thou is in the nominative case, and is governed by the preposition soith. But, according to Rule 22d, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Therefore, thou should be thee; thus, it rests with these and me to decide.]

Let that remain a secret between you and L I lent the book to some one, I know not who. Who did he inquire for? Thou. From he that is needy, turn not away. We are all accountable, each for his own act's. Does that boy know who he is speaking to? I bestow my favours on whosoever I will.

RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES

The preposition to governs the Infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb; "I desire TO learn."—Dr. Adam.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXIII.

Obs. I.—No word is more variously explained by grammarians, than this word 70, which is prefixed to the verb in the infinitive mood. Johnson, Walker, Scett, Todd, and other lexicographers, call it an adverb; but, in explaining its use, they say it denotes certain relations, which it is not the office of an adverb, to express. [See Johnson' Dictionary, 4to.] Lowell, Murray, Webeter, Coar, Comby, and others, call it a preposition; and some of these ascribe it to the government of the verb, and others do not. Lovel's says, "The preposition ro placed before the verb, nakes the infinitive mood." Skinner, in his Canones Expraologici, calls it an equivocal article. Horne Tooks, who shows that most of our conjunctions and prepositions may be traced back to ancient werbs and nouns, says that to has the same erigin as do, and he seems to consider it an auxiliary verb. Many are content to call it a prefix, a particle, a sign of the infinitive, &cc., without telling us way or love it is so, or to what part of speech it belongs. If it be a part of the infinite, it is a serb, and must be classed with the auxiliaries. Dr. Ash placed it among the auxiliaries but he says, the auxiliaries. Who first parsed the infinitive in this manner we know not; the doctrine is found in several English grammars, one of which, written by a classical teacher, was published in London in 1796.—See Char's Grammar, 12mo, p. 263.

Oss. 2.—Most English grammarians have considered the word to as a part of the infinitive; and, like the teachers of Latin, have referred the government of this mood to a preceding verb. But the rule which they give is partial, and often inapplicable; and their exceptions to it are numerous and puzzling. They teach that at least half the different parts of speech frequently govern the infinitive; if so, there should be a distinct rule for each; for why should the government of one part of speech be made an exception to that of an other? and, if this be done, with respect to the infinitive, why not also with respect to the o Oss. I.—No word is more variously explained by grammarians, than this

is applicable, the rule here given amounts to the same thing; and it obviates the necessity for their numerous exceptions, and the embarrassment arising from other constructions of the infinitive not noticed in them.

One. 8.—The infinitive thus admits a simpler solution in English, than in most other languages. In French, the infinitive, though frequently placed in immediate dependence on an other verb, may also be governed by several different prepositions, (as à, de, pour, sans, après,) according to the sense.*

In Spanish and Ralism, the construction is similar. In Latin and Greek, the infinitive is, for the most part, dependent on an other verb. But, according to the grammars, it may stand for a noun in all the six cases; and many have called it an *indeclinable noun*. See the *Port-Royal Latin and Greek Grammars*; in which several peculiar constructions of the infinitive, are re-

ferred to the government of a preposition.

Oss. 4.—Though the infinitive is commonly made an adjunct to some finite werb, yet it may be joined to almost all the other parts of speech, or to an other infinitive; as,

- 1. To a noun; as, "He had leave to go."

 2. To an adjective; as, "We were anxious to see you."

 3. To a pronoun; as, "I discovered him to be a scholar."

 4. To a verb in the infinitive; as, "Cocase to do evil."

 5. To a participle; as, "Endeaveuring to escape, he fell."

 6. To an adverb; as, "She is old enough to go to school."

 7. To a conjunction; as, "I ke knows better than to trust you."

 8. To a preposition; as, "I was about to verite."—Rev., x, 4.

 9. To an interjection; (by ellipsis;) as, "O to forget her!"—Young.

One. 5.—The infinitive is the mere verb, without affirmation; and, in some respect, resembles a noun. It may stand for—

1. A subject; as, "To steal is sinful."

2. A predicate; as, "To enjoy is to obey."—Pope.

3. A purpose, or an end; as, "He's gone to do it."—Edgeworth.

4. An employment; as, "He loves to ride."

5. A cause; as, "I rejoice to hear it."

6. A coming event; as, "A structure soon to fall."—Couper.

7. A term of comparison; as, "He was so much affected as to weep."

One. 6.—Anciently, the infinitive was sometimes preceded by for as well as to; as, "I went up to Jerusalem for to worship."—Acts, xxiv, 11. "What went ye out for to see?"—Luke, vii, 26.

-" Learn skilfullie how Each grain for to laie by itself on a mow."-Tusser.

Modern usage rejects the former preposition.

Obs. 7.—The infinitive sometimes depends on a verb understood; as, "To be candid with you, [I confee] I was in fault." Some grammarians have erroneously taught that the infinitive in such sentences is put absolute.

One. 8.—The infinitive, or a phrase of which the infinitive is a part, being

introduced apparently as the subject of a verb, but superseded by some other word, is put absolute, or left unconnected, by pleonasm; as,

"To be, or not to be :-that is the question."-Shakepeare.

One. 9.—The infinitive of the verb be, is often understood; as, "I suppose it [to be] necessary." [See Obs. 2d on Rule xxiv.]
One. 10.—The infinitive usually follows the word on which it depends;

but this order is sometimes reversed; as,

"To catch your vivid scenes, too gross her hand."-Thomson.

^{* &}quot;La préposition, est un mot indéclinable, placé devant les noms, les pronoms, et les verbes, qu'elle régit.—The preposition is an indeclinable word placed before the nous, pronouns, and verbe, which it governe."—Perrin's Grammar, p. 152.

"Every verb placed immediately after an other verb, or after a preposition, ought to be put in the infinition; because it is then the regimen of the verb or preposition which precedes."—Gram. des Gram, par Gérault Du Vivier, p. 174.

an ellipsis of to or for before the objective of the person; as, "Give [to] him water to drink."—"Buy [for] me a knife." So in the exclamation, "Wo is the former."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXII.—OBJECTIVES

It rests with thou and me to decide.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun thou is in the nominative case, and is governed by the preposition soith. But, according to Rule 22d, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Therefore, thou should be thee; thus, it rests with these and me to decide.]

Let that remain a secret between you and I. I lent the book to some one, I know not who. Who did he inquire for? Thou. From he that is needy, turn not away. We are all accountable, each for his own act's. Does that boy know who he is speaking to? I bestow my favours on whosoever I will.

RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES.

The preposition to governs the Infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb; "I desire to learn."—Dr. Adam.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXIII.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXIII.

OBS. I.—No word is more variously explained by grammarians, than this word to, which is prefixed to the verb in the infinitive mood. Johnson, Walker, Scett, Todd, and other lexicographers, call it an adverb; but, in explaining its use, they say it denotes certain relations, which it is not the office of an adverb, to express. [See Johnson' Dictionary, 4to.] Loweth, Murray, Webster, Coar, Comby, and others, call it a preposition; and some of these ascribe it to the government of the verb, and others do not. Loweth says, "The preposition to placed before the verb, makes the infinitive mood." Skinner, is his Cunones Elymologici, calls it an equivocal article. Horns Tooks, who shows that meet of eur conjunctions and prepositions may be traced back to ancient werbs and nouns, says that to has the same erigin as de, and he seems to consider it an auxiliary verb. Many are content to call it a prefix, a particle, a sign of the infinitive, &c., without telling us may or hose it is so, or to what part of speech it belongs. If it be a part of the infinitive, it is a serb, and must be classed with the auxiliaries. Dr. Ash placed it among the auxiliaries; but he says, the auxiliaries "seem to have the nature of adverbs." We have given in the pseeding rule that explanation which we consider to be the most correct and the most simple. Who first parsed the infinitive in this manner we know not; the doctrine is found in several English grammars, one of which, written by a classical teacher, was published in London in 1796.—See Obar's Grammar, 12mo, p. 263.

Obs. 2.—Most English grammarians have considered the word to as a part of the infinitive; and, like the teachers of Latin, have referred the government of this mood to a preceding verb. But the rule which they give is partial, and often inapplicable; and their exceptions to it are numerous and puzzling. They teach that at least half the different parts of speech fraquently should the government of one part of speech be made an exception to that o

is applicable, the rule here given amounts to the same thing; and it obviates the necessity for their numerous exceptions, and the embarrassment arising from other constructions of the infinitive not noticed in them.

One. 8.—The infinitive thus admits a simpler solution in English, than in most other languages. In French, the infinitive, though frequently placed in immediate dependence on an other verb, may also be governed by several different prepositions, (as à, de, pour, sans, après,) according to the sense.*
In Spanish and Ralism, the construction is similar. In Latin and Greek, the infinitive is, for the most part, dependent on an other verb. But, according to the grammars, it may stand for a noun in all the six cases; and many have called it an indeclinable noun. See the Port-Royal Latin and Greek Grammars; in which several peculiar constructions of the infinitive, are re-

ferred to the government of a preposition.

Oss. 4.—Though the infinitive is commonly made an adjunct to some finite. werb, yet it may be joined to almost all the other parts of speech, or to an other infinitive; as,

- 1. To a noun; as, "He had leave to go."

 2. To an adjective; as, "We were anxious to see you."

 3. To a pronoun; as, "I discovered him to be a scholar."

 4. To a verb in the infinitive; as, "To cause to do evil."

 5. To a participle; as, "Endeaveuring to escape, he fell."

 6. To an adverb; as, "She is old enough to go to school."

 7. To a conjunction; as, "He knows better than to trust you."

 8. To a proposition; as, "I was about to verite."—Rev. x, 4.

 9. To an interjection; (by ellipsis;) as, "O to forget her!"—Young.

One. 5.—The infinitive is the mere verb, without affirmation; and, in some respect, resembles a noun. It may stand for—

1. A subject; as, "To steal is sinful."

2. A predicate; as, "To enjoy is to obey."—Pope.

3. A purpose, or an end; as, "He 's gone to do it."—Edgeworth.

4. An employment; as, "He loves to ride."

5. A cause; as, "I rejoice to hear it."

6. A coming event; as, "A structure soon to fall."—Couper.

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Ons. 6.—Anciently, the infinitive was sometimes preceded by for as well as to; as, "I went up to Jerusalem for to worship."—Acts, xxiv, 11. "What went ye out for to see?"—Luke, vii, 26.

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introduced apparently as the subject of a verb, but superseded by some other word, is put absolute, or left unconnected, by pleonasm; as,

"To be, or not to be :--that is the question."-Shakepeare.

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Ons. 10.—The infinitive usually follows the word on which it depends;

but this order is sometimes reversed; as,

"To catch your vivid scenes, too gross her hand."—Thomson.

^{* &}quot;La préposition, est un mot indéclinable, placé devant les noms, les pronoms, et les verbes, qu'elle régit.—The preposition is an indeclinable word placed before the nous, pronouns, and verbe, which it governe,"—Perrin's Grammar, p. 152.

"Every verb placed immediately after an other verb, or after a preposition, ought to be put in the infinition; because it is then the regimen of the verb or preposition which precedes."—Grams des Gram, par Grandt Du Vivier, p. 1714.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXIII.—INFINITIVES.

Ought these things be tolerated?

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the infinitive be tolerated, is not preceded by the preposition to. But, according to Rule 23d, "The preposition to governs the infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb." Therefore, to should be inserted; thus, Ought these things to be tolerated?

Please excuse my son's absence.
Cause every man go out from me.
Forbid them enter the garden.
Do you not perceive it move?
Allow others discover your merit.
He was seen go in at that gate.
Permit me pass this way.

RULE XXIV.—INFINITIVES.

The active verbs, bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and their participles, usually take the Infinitive after them, without the preposition To: as, "If he bade thee depart, how darest thou stay?"

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXIV.

One. 1.—The preposition is almost always employed after the passive form of these verbs, and in some instances after the active: as, "He was heard to say."—"I cannot see to do it."—"What would dare to molest him who might call, on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty?"—Dr. John-202.

Ons. 2.—The auxiliary be of the passive infinitive is also suppressed, after feel, hear, make, and see; as, "I heard the letter read,"—not, "be read. Ons. 8.—A few other verbs, besides the eight which are mentioned in the foregoing rule, sometimes have the infinitive after them without to; such as, behold, find, have, help, mark, observe, and other equivalents of see. Example: "Certainly it is heaven upon earth, to have a man's mind mose in charity, rest in Providence, and turn upon the poles of truth."—Ld. Bacon.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXIV .-- INFINITIVES.

They need not to call upon her.

[Formule.—Not proper, because the preposition to is inserted before call, which follows the active verb need. But, according to Rule 24th, "The active verbe old, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and their participles, usually take the infinitive after free, without the preposition to." Therefore, to should be omitted; thus, They need not call upon her.]

I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me.

I have heard him to mention the subject.

Bid the boys to come in immediately.

I dare to say he has not got home yet.

Let no rash promise to be made.

We sometimes see bad men to be honoured.

A good reader will make himself to be distinctly heard.

RULE XXV.—NOM. ABSOLUTE.

A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the Nominative, when its case depends on no other word: as, "He failing, who shall meet success?"-" Your fathers, where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever?"-**Zech.**, i, 5.

"This said, he form'd thee, Adam! thee, O man! Dust of the ground!"—Milton.

OBSERVATIONS ON RULE XXV.

Oss. 1.—In parsing the nominative absolute, tell how it is put so, whether with a participle, by direct address, by pleonasm, or by exclamation; for a noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, under the following four circumstances:
1. When, with a participle, it is used to express a cause, or a concomitant

fact; as,

-"Thou looking on, Shame to be overcome or overreach'd, Would utmost vigor raise."—Milton.

2. When, by direct address, it is put in the second person, and set off from the verb by a comma; as, "At length, Seged, reflect and be wise."—Dr. Johnson

5. When, by pleonasm, it is introduced abruptly for the sake of emphasis; as, "He that is in the city, famine and pestilence shall devour him." "Gad, a troop shall overcome him." "Gen, xlix, 19. "The north and the south, thou hast created them." —Pealms, lxxxix, 12. [See the figure Pleonasm, in A. When, by mere exclamation, it is used without address, and without other words expressed or implied to give it construction; as,

"Oh! deep enchanting prelude to repose,
The dawn of bliss, the twilight of our woes!"—Campbell.

One. 3.—The nominative put absolute, with a participle, is equivalent to a dependent clause, commencing with when, while, if, since, or because; as, "I being a child."—equal to, "When I was a child."
One. 3.—The participle being is often understood after nouns or pronouns

put absolute; as,

"Alike in ignorance, his reason [——] such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much."—Pope.

Obs. 4.—All nouns in the second person are either put absolute, according to Rule 25th, or in apposition with their own pronouns placed before them, according to Rule 3d: as, "This is the stone which was set at nought of you builders."—Acts.

"Peace! minion, peace! it boots not me to hear The selfish counsel of you hangers-on."—Author.

OBS. 5.—Nouns preceded by an article, are almost always in the third person; and, in exclamatory phrases, such nouns sometimes appear to have no determinable construction; as, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God."—Rom., xi, 33.

OBS. 6.—The case of nouns used in exclamations, or in mottees and absorbed actions of the depth of the second and articles.

breviated asyings, often depends, or may be conceived to depend, on something understood; and, when their construction can be satisfactorily explained on the principle of ellipsis, they are not put absolute. The following examples may perhaps be resolved in this manner, though the expressions will lose much of their vivacity: "A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!"

Shah. "Heaps upon heaps,"—"Skin for skin,"—"An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth,"—"Day after day,"—"World without end."—Bible.

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXV.-NOM. ABSOLUTE.

Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the pronoun him, whose case depends on no other word, is in the objective case. But, according to Rule 25th, "A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word. Therefore, him should be he; thus, He having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.]

Me being young, they deceived me. Them refusing to comply, I withdrew. Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.

The child is lost; and me, whither shall I go? Oh happy us! surrounded thus with blessings!—Murray.

"Thee too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cæsar overcome.

But him, the chieftain of them all, His sword hangs rusting on the wall. Her quick relapsing to her former state, With boding fears approach the serving train. There all thy gifts and graces we display, Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

RULE XXVI.--SUBJUNCTIVES.

A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the Subjunctive present; and a mere supposition with indefinite time, by a verb in the Subjunctive imperfect: but a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the Indicative mood: as, "If thou forsake him, he will cast thee off forever."—"If it were not so, I would have told you."—"If thou went, nothing would be gained."—"Though he is poor, he is contented."

NOTES TO RULE XXVI.

Note I.—In connecting words that express time, the order and fitness of time should be observed. Thus: in stead of, "I have seen him last week," say, "I saw him last week;" and in stead of, "I saw him this week," say, "I have seen him this week."

Note II.—Verbs of commanding, desiring, expecting, hoping, intending, permitting, and some others, in all their tenses, refer to actions or events, relatively present or future: one should therefore say, "I hoped you would come,"—not, "would have come;" and, "I intended to do it,"—not, "to have done it;" &c.

Note III.—Propositions that are at all times equally true

or false, should generally be expressed in the present tense; as, "He seemed hardly to know, that two and two make four,"
—not, "made."

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER RULE XXVI,-MOODS.

Under the First Clause of Rule 26.—Future Contingencies.

He will not be pardoned, unless he repents.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb repents, which is used to express a future contingency, is in the indicative mood. But, according to the first clause of Rule 28th, "A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive present." Therefore, repents, should be repent; thus, He will not be pardoned, unless he repent.]

He will maintain his cause, though he loses his estate. They will fine thee, unless thou offerest an excuse. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rains. Let him take heed lest he falls. On condition that he comes, I consent to stay. If he is but discreet, he will succeed. Take heed that thou speakest not to Jacob. If thou castest me off, I shall be miserable.

Send them to me, if thou pleasest. Watch the door of thy lips, lest thou utterest folly.

Under the Second Clause of Rule 26.—Mere Suppositions.

And so would I, if I was he.

[Formula.—Not proper, because the verb was, which is used to express a mere supposition, with indefinite time, is in the indicative mood. But, according to the second clause of Rule 26th, "A mere supposition, with indefinite time, is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive imperfect." Therefore was should be were; thus, And so would I, if I toore he.]

If I was to write, he would not regard it.

If thou feltest as I do, we should soon decide.

Though thou sheddest thy blood in the cause, it would but prove thee sincerely a fool.

If thou lovedst him, there would be more evidence of it.

I believed, whatever was the issue, all would be well. If love was never feigned, it would appear to be scarce.

There fell from his eyes as it had been scales.

If he was an impostor, he must have been detected.

Was death denied, all men would wish to die.

O that there was yet a day to redress thy wrongs! Though thou wast huge as Atlas, thy efforts would be vain.

Under the Last Clause of Rule 26.—Assumed Facts.

If he know the way, he does not need a guide.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the verb know, which is used to express a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, is in the subjunctive mood. But, according to the last clause of Rule 26th, "A conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the indicative mood." Therefore, know should be knows; thus, If he knows the way, he does not need a guide.

Though he seem to be artless, he has deceived us. If he think as he speaks, he may be safely trusted. Though this event be strange, it certainly did happen. If thou love tranquillity of mind, seek it not abroad. If seasons of idleness be dangerous, what must a continued habit of it prove?—Blair.

Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered.

I knew thou wert not slow to hear.

Under Note 1.—Words of Time.

The work has been finished last week.

He was out of employment this fortnight.

This mode of expression has been formerly in use.

I should be much obliged to him if he will attend to it.

I will pay the vows which my lips have uttered when I was in trouble.

I have compassion on the multitude, because they continue with me now three days.

I thought, by the accent, that he had been speaking to his child.

And he that was dead sat up and began to speak.

Thou hast borne, and hast patience, and for my name's sake hast laboured, and hast not fainted.—Rev., ii, 3.

Ye will not come unto me that ye might have life.

At the end of this quarter, I shall be at school two years.

We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.

Under Note 2.—Relative Tenses.

We expected that he would have arrived last night. Our friends intended to have met us.

We hoped to have seen you.

He would not have been allowed to have entered.

Under Note 3.—Permanent Propositions.

The doctor affirmed, that fever always produced thirst. The ancients asserted, that virtue was it own reward.

PROMISCUOUS EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

LESSON I.

[It is here expected that the learner will ascertain for himself the proper form of correcting each example, according to the particular Rule or Note under which it belongs.]

There is a spirit in man; and the inspiration of the Almighty giveth them understanding.

My people doth not consider.

CHAP. III.] SYNTAX.—ERRORS.—PROMISCUOUS.

I have never heard who they invited.

Then hasten thy return; for, thee away, Nor lustre has the sun, nor joy the day.

I am as well as when you was here.

That elderly man, he that came in late, I supposed to be the superintendent.

All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers, but his follies and vices are innumerable.

It must indeed be confessed that a lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.

There was more persons than one engaged in this affair.

A man who lacks ceremony, has need for great merit.

A wise man avoids the showing any excellence in trifles.

The most important and first female quality is sweetness of temper.

We choose rather lead than follow.

Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as admiration.

He must fear many, who many fear.

Every one partake of honour bestowed on the worthy.

The king nor the queen were not at all deceived.

Was there no difference, there would be no choice.

I had rather have been informed.

Must thee return this evening?

Life and death is in the power of the tongue.

I saw a person that I took to be she.

Let him be whom he may, I shall not stop.

This is certainly an useful invention.

That such a spirit as thou dost not understand me.

'It is no more but justice,' quoth the farmer.

LESSON II.

Great improvements has been made.
It is undoubtedly true what I have heard.
The nation is torn by feuds which threaten their ruin.
The account of these transactions were incorrect.
Godliness with contentment are great gam.
The number of sufferers have not been ascertained.
There are one or more of them yet in confinement.
They have chose the wisest part.
He spent his whole life in doing of good.
They know scarcely that temperance is a virtue.
I am afraid lest I have laboured in vain.
Mischief to itself doth back recoil.
This construction sounds rather harshly.
What is the cause of the leaves curling?

Was it thee, that made the noise?
Let thy flock clothe upon the naked.
Wisdom and knowledge is granted unto thee.
His conduct was surprising strange.
This woman taught my brother and I to read.
Let your promises be such that you can perform.
We shall sell them in the state they now are.
We may add this observation, however.
This came in fashion when I was young.
I did not use the leaves, but root of the plant.
We have used every mean in our power continually.
Pass ye away, thou inhabitant of Saphir.—Micah, i, 11.
Give every syllable and every letter their proper sound.

LESSON III.

To know exactly how much mischief may be ventured upon with impunity, are knowledge enough for some folks. Every leaf and every twig teem with life. I was rejoiced at this intelligence. At this stage of advancement, there is little difficulty in the pupil's understanding the passive and neuter verbs, I was afraid that I should have lost the parcel. Which of all these patterns is the prettier? They which despise instruction shall not be wise. Both thou and thy advisers have mistaken their interest, A idle soul shall suffer hunger. The lips of knowledge is a precious jewel. I and my cousin are requested to attend. Can only say that such is my belief. This is different from the conscience being made to feel, Here is ground for their leaving the world with peace. Where are you all running so fast? A man is the noblest work of creation, Of all other crimes willful murder is the most atrocious. The tribes whom I visited, are partially civilized. From hence I conclude they are in error. The girls' books are neater than the boys.

I intended to have transcribed it.

Shall a character made up of the very worst passions, pass under the name of a gentleman?

Rhoda ran in, and told how Peter stood before the gate.

What is latitude and longitude?

Cicero was more eloquent than any Roman.

Who dares apologize for Pizarro ?—who is but another name for rapacity?

LESSON IV.

Tell me whether you will do it or no.

After the most straitest sect, I lived a Pharisec.

We have no more but five loaves and two fishes.

I know not who it was who did it.

Doubt not, little though there be, But I'll cast a crumb to thee.—Langhorne,

This rule is the best which can be given.

I have never seen no other way.

These are poor amends for the men and treasures which we have lost.

Dost thou know them boys?

This is a part of my uncle's father's estate.

Many people never learn to speak correct.

Some people are rash, and others timid: those apprehend too much, these too little.

Is it lawful for us to give tribute to Cæsar or no?

It was not worth while preserving any permanent enmity.

I no sooner saw my face in it, but I was startled at the shortness of it.

Every person is answerable for their own conduct.

They are men that scorn a mean action, and who will exert themselves to serve you.

I do not recollect ever having paid it.

The stoics taught that all crimes were equal.

Every one of these theories are now exploded.

Either of these four will answer.

There is no situation where he would be happy.

The boy has been detected in stealing, that you thought so clever.

I will meet thee there if thee please.

He is not so sick, but what he can laugh.

These clothes does not fit me.

The audience was all very attentive.

Wert thou some star, which from the ruin'd roof Of shak'd Olympus by mischance didst fall!—*Milton*.

LESSON V.

Was the master, or many of the scholars, in the room? His father's and mother's consent was asked.

Whom is he supposed to be?

He is an old venerable man.

It was then my purpose to have visited Sicily.

It is to the learner only, and he that is in doubt, that this assistance is recommended.

There are not the least hope of his recovery.

Anger and impatience is always unreasonable.

In his letters, there are not only correctness, but elegance.

Opportunity to do good is the highest preferment which a noble mind desires.

The year when he died, is not mentioned. Had I knew it, I should not have went.

Was it thee, that spoke to me? The house is situated pleasantly.

He did it as private as he possibly could.

Subduing our passions is the noblest of conquests.

James is more diligent than thee.

Words interwove with sighs found out their way.

He appears to be diffident excessively.

The number of our days are with thee.

Like a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that
fear him.—Psalms, ciii, 13.

The circumstances of this case, is different.

Well for us, if some such other men should rise!

A man that is young in years, may be old in hours, if he have lost no time.

The chief captain, fearing lest Paul should have been pulled in pieces of them, commanded the soldiers to go down, and to take them by force from among them.—Acts, xxiii, 10.

Nay, weep not, gentle Eros; there is left us Ourselves to end ourselves.—Shakspeare.

CHAPTER IV.—GENERAL ITEMS.

The following comprehensive canon for the correction of all sorts of nondescript errors in syntax, a few general observations on the foregoing code of instructions, some examples of false syntax to be corrected by the General Rule, and a series of parsing lessons, illustrative of the Exceptions and Observations previously presented, constitute the present chapter.

GENERAL RULE OF SYNTAX.

In the formation of sentences, the consistency and adaptation of all the words should be carefully observed; and a regular, clear, and correspondent construction should be preserved throughout.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE SYNTAX.

Obs. 1.—In proportion as the rules of Syntax are made few and general, they must be either vague or liable to exceptions. The number of the principles which deserve to be placed in the rules, is not fixed by any obvious distinction; hence the diversity in the number of the rules as given by different grammarians. In this matter a middle course seems to be best. We have therefore taken the parts of speech in their order, and comprised all the general principles of relation, agreement, and government, in twenty-six leading Rules. Of these rules, sight (namely, the 1st, the 4th, the 14th, the 15th, the 15th, the 17th, the 18th, and the 19th,) are used only in parsing two (namely, the 18th and the 26th,) are necessary only for the correction of false syntax; the remaining sixteen answer the double purpose of parsing and correction. The Rosey, of which there are sighty-seem, are subordinated rules of syntax, formed for the detection of errors. The Observations, of which there are about two hundred, are chiefly designed to explain the arciples which deserve to be placed in the rules, is not fixed by any obvious which there are about two hundred, are chiefly designed to explain the arrangement of words, and whatever is difficult or peculiar in construction.

Obs. 2.—The General Rule of Syntax, being designed to meet every possible form of error in construction, necessarily includes all the particular rules and notes. It is too bread to a convenient way when designed to the convenient of the conv

and notes. It is too broad to convey very definite instruction, and ought

not to be applied were a special rule or note is applicable. A few examples, not properly coming under any other head, will serve to show its use and application: such examples are given in the false syntax below.

Oss. 8.—In the foregoing pages, the principles of syntax or construction, are supposed to be pretty fully developed; but there may be in composition, many arrors of such a nature that no rule of common case show what allowed. many errors of such a nature that no rule of grammar can show what should be substituted. The greater the inaccuracy, the more difficult the correction; because the sentence may require a change throughout. Thus, the following definition, though very short, is a fourfold solecism: "Number is the consideration of an object, as one or more."—Murray. This sentence, though written by one grammarian, and copied by twenty others, cannot be corrected but by changing every word in it: but this will of course destroy its identity, and form an other sentence, not an amendment. It is unfortunate for youth, that a volume of these incorrigible sentences might be culled from our grammars! Examples of false syntax cannot embrace what is either utterly wrong in thought, or utterly unintelligible in language; for the writer's meaning must be preserved in the correction, and where no sense is discovered. meaning must be preserved in the correction, and where no sense is discovered, particular improprieties can never be detected and proved. The sentence above is one which we cannot correct; but we can say of it-first, that number in grammar never can be defined, because unity and plurality have some common property—secondly, that number is not consideration, in any sense of the word—thirdly, that an object is known to be one object, by mere intuition, and not by consideration—and, fourthly, that he who considers an object as more than one, misconceives it!!!

Object as more than one, misconceives it!!!!

Oss. 4.—In the first eighteen rules, we have given the syntax of all the parts of speech in regard to relation and agreement. And, by placing the rules in the order of the parts of speech, we hope to have relieved the pupil from all difficulty in recollecting the numbers by which they are distinguished; for, in the exercise of parsing, it is very important that the Rules be distinctly and accurately quoted by the pupil. Relation and agreement have been taken together, because they could not properly be separated. One word may relate to an other and not agree with it; but there is never any necessary agreement between words that have not a relation, or a dependence on each other according to the sense.

ence on each other according to the sense.

Obs. 5.—The English language having few inflections, has also few conords or agreements. Articles, adjectives, and participles, which in many other languages agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case, have usually in English, no modifications in which they can agree with their nouns. Louth says, "The adjective in English, having no variation of gender and number, cannot but agree with the substantive in these respects." What then is the agreement of words? Can it be any thing else than their similarity in some common property or modification? And is it not obvious, that no two things in nature can any wise agree or be alike, except in some quality or accident which belongs to each of them? Yet how often have Murray and others, as well as Lovih, forgotten this! To give one instance out of many: "Gender has respect only to the third person singular of the pronouns, he, she, it."—Murray, Pierce, Flint, Lyon, Bacon, Russell, Fisk, Mallby, Alger, Miller, Merchant, Kirkham, and other idle copyists. Yet, according to these same gentlemen, "Gender is the distinction of nowns, with regard to sex;" and, "Pronouns must always agree with their antecedents, and the nouns for which they stand, in gender." Now, not one of these three careless assertions can possibly be reconciled with either of the others!!

FALSE SYNTAX UNDER THE GENERAL RULE.

If I can contribute to your and my country's glory. - Goldsmith.

[FORMULE.—Not proper, because the pronoun your has not a clear and regular construction. But, according to the General Rule of Syntax, "In the formation of sentences, the consistency and adaptation of all the words should be carefully observed; and a regular, clear, and correspondent construction should be preserved throughout." The sentence having a double meaning, may be corrected in two ways: thus, If I can contribute to our country's glory—or, If I can contribute to your glory and that of my country.]

Is there, then, more than one true religion?

The laws of Lycurgus but substituted insensibility to enjoyment.—Goldsmith.

Rain is seldom or ever seen at Lima.

The young bird raising its open mouth for food, is a natural indication of corporeal want.—Cardell.

There is much of truth in the observation of Ascham.—Id. Adopting the doctrine which he had been taught.—Id.

This library exceeded half a million volumes.—Id.

The Coptic alphabet was one of the latest formed of any.—Id. Many evidences exist of the proneness of men to vice.—Id.

To perceive nothing, or not to perceive, is the same.

The king of France or England was to be the umpire.

He may be said to have saved the life of a citizen; and, consequently, entitled to the reward.

The men had made inquiry for Simon's house, and stood before the gate.—Acts, x, 17.

Give no more trouble than you can possibly help.

The art of printing being then unknown, was a circumstance in some respects favourable to freedom of the pen.

Another passion which the present age is apt to run into, is to make children learn all things.—Goldsmith.

It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or, at least, may not acquire.

Nor was Philip wanting in his endeavours to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had most of the leading men in Greece.—
Goldsmith.

The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about and halted, with the river on their backs.—Id.

Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants; and riches, upon enjoying our superfluities.

That brother should not war with brother. And worry and devour each other.—Cowper.

Such is the refuge of our youth and age; The first from hope, the last from vacancy.—Byron.

Triumphant Sylla! couldst thou then divine. By aught than Romans Rome should thus be laid?—Id,

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS VIII.—SYNTACTICAL.

In the Eighth Praxis are exemplified nearly all the Exceptions and Observations under the Rules of Syntax and the Notes.

LESSON I .-- PROSE.

The philosopher, the saint, or the hero—the wise, the good. or the great man-very often lies hid and concealed in a plebeian, which a proper education might have disinterred and brought to light.—Addison.

The long-suffering of God waited in the days of Noah, while

the ark was a preparing.—1 Pet., iii, 20.

Mercy and truth are met together; righteousness and peace have kissed each other.—Ps., lxxxv, 10.

In vain do they worship me, teaching for doctrines the commandments of men.—Matt., xv, 9.

Knowest thou not this of old, since man was placed upon the earth, that the triumphing of the wicked is short, and the joy of the hypocrite but for a moment?—Job, xx, 4, 5.

They shall every man turn to his own people, and flee every

one into his own land.—Isaiah, xiii, 14.

Wherefore ye needs must be subject, not only for wrath, but also for conscience' sake.—Rom., xiii, 5.

But Peter continued knocking; and when they had opened the door, and saw him, they were astonished.—Acts, xii, 16.

Ye have heard that it hath been said, 'An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth.'—Matt., v, 37. [See Exod., xxi, 24.]

For now I see through a glass darkly; but then, face to face: now I know in part; but then shall I know even as also I am known.—1 *Cor.*, xiii, 12.

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Every man should let his man-servant, and every man his maid-servant, being an Hebrew or an Hebrewess, go free; that none should serve himself of them, to wit, of a Jew his brother.

—*Jer.*, xxxiv, 9.

Then the king of Babylon's army besieged Jerusalem: and Jeremiah the Prophet was shut up in the court of the prison which was in the king of Judah's house.—Jer., xxxii, 2.

I Tertius, who wrote this epistle, salute you in the Lord.—

Rom., xvi, 22.

And this is the record of John, when the Jews sent priests and Levites from Jerusalem to ask him, 'Who art thou?' And he confessed, and denied not, but confessed, 'I am not the Christ.' And they asked him, 'What then? art thou Elias?' and he saith, 'I am not.'—'Art thou that prophet?' and he answered, 'No.'—John, i, 19.

The new moons and sabbaths, the calling of assemblies, I cannot away with: it is iniquity, even the solemn meeting.—

Isaiah, i, 13.

LESSON II.--PROSE.

The rudiments of every language, therefore, must be given as a task, not as an amusement.—Goldsmith.

Time we ought to consider as a sacred trust committed to us by God, of which we are now the depositaries, and [of which] we are to render an account at the last.—Blair.

Thus Justice, properly speaking, is the only virtue; and all

the rest have their origin in it.—Goldsmith.

True generosity is a duty as indispensably necessary as those [which are] imposed upon us by law.—Id.

To teach men to be orators, is little less than to teach them

to be poets.—Id.

Lysippus is told that his banker asks a debt of forty pounds, and that a distressed acquaintance petitions for the same sum. He gives it, without hesitating, to the latter; for he demands as a favour what the former requires as a debt.—Id.

'That I know not what I want,' said the prince, 'is the cause of my complaint; if I had any known want, I should have a certain wish; that wish would excite endeavour; and I should not then repine to see the sun move so slowly towards the western mountain, or lament when the day breaks, and sleep will no longer hide me from myself.'—Dr. Johnson.

'My friends,' said he, 'I have seriously considered our manners and our prospects; and [I] find that we have mistaken our own interest. Let us therefore stop, while to stop is in our power.'—They stared awhile in silence one upon an other, and

at last drove him away by a general chorus of continued

laughter.—Id.

The laws of eastern hospitality allowed them to enter, and the master welcomed them, like a man liberal and wealthy. He was skilful enough in appearances soon to discern that they were no common guests, and spread his table with magnificence.—Id.

The year before, he had so used the matter, that, what by force, what by policy, he had taken from the Christians above

hirty small castles.—Knolles.

We exhorted them to trust in God, and to love one an other.

—J. Campbell.

LESSON III .- POETRY.

See the sole bliss Heaven could on all bestow, Which who but feels, can taste, but thinks, can know; Yet, poor with fortune, and with learning blind, The bad must miss, the good, untaught, will find.—Pope.

There are, who, deaf to mad Ambition's call, Would shrink to hear th' obstrep'rous trump of fame; Supremely bless'd, if to their portion fall Health, competence, and peace.—Beattie.

The end and the reward of toil is rest.—Id.

Shame to mankind! Philander had his foes; He felt the truths I sing, and I, in him: But he, nor I feel more.—Young.

Lorenzo, to recriminate is just: Fondness for fame is avarice of air.—Id.

Wrong he sustains with temper, looks on heaven, Nor stoops to think his injurer his foe.—Id.

Amid the forms which this full world presents Like rivals to his choice, what human breast E'er doubts, before the transient and minute, To prize the vast, the stable, and sublime?—Akenside.

Now fears in dire vicissitude invade; The rustling brake alarms, and quiv'ring shade:

Nor light nor darkness brings his pain relief;
One shows the plunder, and one hides the thief.—Johnson.

So reads he nature, whom the lamp of truth Illuminates:—thy lamp, mysterious Word! Which whoso sees, no longer wanders lost, With intellects bemaz'd in endless doubt, But runs the road of wisdom.—Cowper.

From education as the leading cause, The public character its colour draws; Hence the prevailing manners take their cast, Extravagant or sober, loose or chaste.—Id.

Mercy to him that shows it, is the rule
And righteous limitation of its act,
By which heaven moves in pard'ning guilty man.—Id.

Yet O the thought, that thou art safe, and he! That thought is joy, arrive what may to me.—Id.

Then palaces and lofty domes arose;

LESSON IV .--- POETRY.

These for devotion, and for pleasure those.—Blackmore.

And O, poor hapless nightingale, thought I,
How sweet thou singst, how near the deadly snare!—Milton.

Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice;
Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgement.

Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
For loan oft loseth both itself and friend.—Shakspeare.

Sorrow breaks reasons, and reposing hours;
Makes the night morning, and the noon-tide night.—Id.

Nor then the solemn nightingale ceas'd warbling.—Milton.

The bless'd to-day is as completely so,

As who began a thousand years ago.—Pope.

Thus Virtue sinks beneath unnumber'd woes,
When Passions, born her friends, revolt her foes.—Brown.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.—Gray.

Then kneeling down to heaven's eternal King,
The saint, the father, and the husband prays;
Hope 'springs exulting on triumphant wing,'
That thus they all shall meet in future days.—Burns.

These are thy blessings, Industry! rough power; Whom labour still attends, and sweat, and pain.—Thomson.

Sweet bird! thy bow'r is ever green,
Thy sky is ever clear;
Thou hast no sorrow in thy song,
No winter in thy year.—Logan.

Hark! they whisper; angels say,
'Sister spirit, come away!'
What is this absorbs me quite,
Steals my senses, shuts my sight?—Pope.

LESSON V .-- POETRY.

Oh fool! to think God hates the worthy mind, The lover and the love of human kind, Whose life is healthful, and whose conscience clear, Because he wants a thousand pounds a year.—Pope.

- He can't flatter, he! An honest mind and plain; he must speak truth: An they will hear it, so; if not, he's plain.—Shak. What! canst thou not forbear me half an hour? Then get thee gone, and dig my grave thyself.—Id. Remote from man, with God he pass'd his days, Prayer all his business, all his pleasure praise.—Parnell. Nature in silence bid the world repose; When near the road a stately palace rose.—Id. It chanc'd the noble master of the dome Still made his house the wandering stranger's home.—Id. If still she loves thee, hoard that gem; 'Tis worth thy vanish'd diadem.—Byron. He calls for Famine, and the meagre fiend Blows mildew from between his shrivel'd lips, And taints the golden ear.—Cowper. What-ho! thou genius of the clime, what-ho! Liest thou asleep beneath these hills of snow?—Dryden. Oh! what a tangled web we weave, When first we practise to deceive!—Scott.

Here he had need
All circumspection; and we now, no less,
Choice in our suffrage; for on whom we send,
The weight of all, and our last hope relies.—Milton.
Who wickedly is wise, or madly brave,
Is but the more a fool, the more a knave.—Pope.
To copy beauties, forfeits all pretence
To fame;—to copy faults, is want of sense.—Churchill.
Whose freedom is by suffrance, and at will
Of a superior, he is never free.—Cowper.
A field of corn, a fountain, and a wood,
Is all the wealth by nature understood.—Cowley.

CHAPTER V.—EXAMINATION.

QUESTIONS ON SYNTAX.

LESSON I .- DEFINITIONS.

Of what does syntax treat? What is the relation of words!—the agreement of words!—the government of words?—the arrangement of words? What is a sentence?
What are the principal parts of a sentence?
What are the other parts called? What are the order pane cannot have the particle of sentences are there?
What is a cimple sentence? What is a compound sentence?
What is a clause? What is a phrase?
What words must be supplied in parsing?

LESSON II.-THE RULES.

How many special rules of syntax are there? Of what do the first eighteen rules of syntax treat? Of what do the last eight rules principally treat? Where is the arrangement of words treated of? To what do articles relate? What case is employed as the subject of a verb? What agreement is required between words in apposition? To what do adjectives relate? How does a pronoun agree with its antecedent? How does a pronoun agree with a collective noun? How does a pronoun agree with joint antecedents? How does a pronoun agree with disjunct antecedents?

LESSON III.-THE RULES.

How does a verb agree with its subject or nominative? How does a verb agree with a collective noun? How does a verb agree with joint nominatives? How does a verb agree with disjunct nominatives?
What agreement is required, when verbs are connected?
How are participles employed?
To what do adverbs relate?
What is the verb agreement. What is the use of conjunctions? What is the use of prepositions? To what do interjections relate?

LESSON IV .- THE RULES.

By what is the possessive case governed? What case do active-transitive verbs govern? What case is put after other verbs? What case do prepositions govern?
What governs the infinitive mood?
What verbs take the infinitive after them without the preposition to? When is a noun or pronoun put absolute? When should the subjunctive mood be employed?

LESSON V .- THE RULES.

What are the several titles, or subjects, of the twenty-six rules?
What says Rule 1st?—Rule 2d?—Rule 3d?—Rule 4th?—Rule 5th?—Rule
6th?—Rule 7th?—Rule 8th?—Rule 9th?—Rule 10th?—Rule 11th?—Rule
12th?—Rule 18th?—Rule 14th?—Rule 15th?—Rule 16th?—Rule 17th?—Rule
18th?—Rule 19th?—Rule 20th?—Rule 21st?—Rule 22d?—Rule 23d?
—Rule 24th?—Rule 25th?—Rule 26th?

LESSON VI.—ANALYSIS.

What is it, "to analyze a sentence?"

What are the component parts of a sentence

Can all sentences be divided into clauses?

Are there different methods of analyzing sentences?

Why are not the different praxes of etymological parsing severally reckoned

among these methods?
What is the first method of analysis, according to this book?

What is the following example analysed by this method? "Even the Atheist, who tells us that the universe is self-existent and indestructible—even he, who, instead of seeing the traces of a manifold wisdom in its manifold varieties, sees nothing in them all but the exquisite structures and lofty dimensions of materialism—even he, who would despoil creation of its God, cannot look upon its golden suns, and their accompanying systems, without the solemn impression of a magnificence that fixes and overpowers him."

LESSON VII.-ANALYSIS.

What is the second method of analysis?

How is the following example analyzed by this method? "Fear naturally quickens the filight of guilt. Rasselas could not catch the fugitive, with his utmost efforts; but, resolving to weary, by perseverance, him whom he could not surpass in speed, he pressed on till the foot of the mountain stopped his course."

LESSON VIII.—ANALYSIS.

What is the third method of analysis?

How is the following example analyzed by this method? "Such is the emptiness of human enjoyment, that we are always impatient of the present.

Attainment is followed by neglect, and possession, by disgust. Few moments are more pleasing than those in which the mind is concerting measures for a new undertaking. From the first hint that wakens the saw, to the hour of actual execution, all is improvement and progress, triumph and felicity."

LESSON IX.—ANALYSIS.

What is the fourth method of analysis?

How is the following example analyzed by this method? "Swift would say, 'The thing has not life enough in it to keep it aweet;' Johnson, 'The creature possesses not vitality sufficient to preserve it from putrefaction." What is said of the fifth method of analysis?

[Now, if the teacher here choose to teach further any of the first four methods of analysis, he may direct his pupils to turn to the next selection of examples for parsing, or to any other accurate sentences, and to analyze them according to the method chosen.]

LESSON X .- PARSING.

What has the sense to do with syntax, or with parsing?

What is required of the pupil in syntactical parsing?

How is the following sentence parsed? "My friends, this enterprise, alas! which once seemed likely to be very beneficial, will never compensate us for the trouble and expense with which it has been attended."

[Now parse, in like manner, and with no needless deviations from the form, the thirty-one lessons of the Seventh Prawis; or, (if the teacher prefer it,) first take the Rallo words only, and afterwards explain all the words, as they come in succession.]

LESSON XI.—EXCEPTIONS.

What are the general contents of chapters second and third of this code of

What are the nature and purpose of the notes to the rules?

What is said of the correction of false syntax.

How many and what exceptions are there to Rule 1st !—to Rule 2d !—to Rule 3d !—to Rule 4th !—to Rule 5th !—to Rule 6th !—to Rule 7th !—to Rule 8th !—to Rule 9th !—to Rule 10th !—to Rule 11th !—to Rule 12th !—

to Rule 18th !--to Rule 14th !--to Rule 15th !--to Rule 16th !--to Rule 17th !--to Rule 18th.

[Now explain and correct orally all the false syntax placed under the Rules and Notes; learning for each lesson about thirty examples, and reciting them without recurrence to the Key during the exercise.]

LESSON XII .-- OBSERVATIONS.

What is observed of the placing of Articles?—Nominatives?—Words in Apposition!—Adjectives?—Pronouns!—Verbs!—Participles?—Adverbs!—Conjunctions?—Prepositions?—Interjections?—Possessives!—Objectives?—Same Cases!—Infinitives!

Under how many and what circumstances are nouns put absolute?

[Now read all the other observations, so as to be able to refer to them if necessary; and then parse the five lessons of the Bighth Prawst.

CHAPTER VI.—FOR WRITING.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

[When the pupil has been sufficiently exercised in syntactical pareing, and has corrected orally, according to the formules given, all the examples of false syntax designed for oral exercises; he should write out the following exercises, correcting them according to the principles of syntax given in the rules and notes.]

EXERCISE I.—ARTICLES.

Christianity claims an heavenly origin. An useless excellence is a contradiction in terms. It would have an happy influence on genius. Part not with a old friend for an new acquaintance. Justice eyes not the parties, but cause. I found in him a friend, and not mere promiser. These fathers lived in the fourth and following century. The rich and poor are seldom intimate. The Bible contains the Old and the New Testaments. An elegant and florid style are very different. The humility is a deep which no man can fathom. The true cheerfulness is the privilege of the innocence. A devotion is a refuge from a human frailty. The duplicity and the friendship are not congenial. The familiarity with the vicious fosters a vice. A forced happiness is a solecism in the terms. The favourites are generally the objects of the envy. An equivocation is a mean and a sneaking vice. He sent an other and rather a more modest letter. The flatterers are put to a flight by an adversity. An obstinacy is unfavourable to the discovery of the truth, The conic sections are a part of the geometry. What is the proper meaning of a Landgrave? Sensuality is one kind of pleasure, such an one as it is. What sovereign assumes the title of an Autocrat?

Believe me, the man is less a fool than a knave. He is a much deeper deceiver than a sufferer. Laziness is a greater thief than pickpocket. Heroes who then flourished, have passed away. Time which is to come, may not come to us.

EXERCISE II.—NOUNS.

A friend should bear a friends infirmities'. Deviations' from rectitude are approaches to sin. Crafty person's often entrap themselves. Mens mind's seem to be somewhat variously constituted. The great doctors, adept's in science, often disagree. The two men were ready to cut each others' throats. We went at the rate of five mile an hour. His income is a thousand pound a year. Five bushel of wheat are worth forty shilling. Reading is one mean's of acquiring knowledge. The well is at least ten fathom deep. I shall be a hundred mile off by that time. Wisdom and Folly's votaries travel different roads. The true philanthropist is all mankind's friend. He desires the whole human race's happiness. The idler and the spendthrift's faults are similar. A good mans words inflict no injury. Be not generous at other peoples expense. True hope is swift, and flies with swallows wings. Lifes current holds its course, and never returns. Many assume Virtues livery, who shun her service. I left the parcel at Richardson's, the bookseller's. The books are for sale at Samuel Wood's & Sons'. Where shall we find friendship like David's and Jonathan's? Acquiesce for peace's and harmony's sake. The moons disk often appears larger than the sun. Consult Sheridan, Johnson, and Walker's Dictionary. Such was my uncle's agent's wife's economy. A frugal plenty marks the wise mans board. This mob, for honesty sake, broke open all the prisons. Our sacks shall be a mean's to sack the city. Such was the economy of the wife of the agent of my uncle. These emmet's, how little they are in our eyes! Childrens minds may be easily overloaded.

EXERCISE III.—ADJECTIVES.

A palmistry at which this vermin are very dexterous. These kind of knaves I know.—Shakspeare.

to Rule 13th ?--to Rule 14th ?--to Rule 15th ?--to Rule 16th ?--to Rule 17th ?--to Rule 18th.

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Vanity has more subjects than any of the passions. The vain are delighted with fashionable and new dresses. So highly did they esteem this goods. Washington has been honoured more than any American. Which is the loftier of the Asiatic mountains? This ashes they were very careful to preserve. Is not she the younger of the three sisters? Could not some less nobler plunder satisfy thee? I can assign a more satisfactory and stronger reason. Peter was older than any of the twelve apostles. Peace of mind is easier lost than gained. Of this victuals he was always very fond. Man has more wants than any animal. Of all other practical rules this is the most complex. Is not the French more fashionable than any language? Vice never leads to old honoured age. Cloths of a more inferior quality are more salable. This is found in no book published previous to mine. He turned away with the most utmost contempt. Time glides swift and imperceptible away. Of their more ulterior measures I know nothing. My three last letters were never answered. Fortune may frown on the most superior genius. It becomes a gentleman to speak correct. The most loftiest mountain is Mont Blanc. If a man acts foolish, is he to be esteemed wise? Drop your acquaintance with them bad boys. They sat silently and motionless an hour and a half. Quiet minds, like smooth water, reflect clear.

> True faith, true policy, united ran; This was but love of God, and that of man.

EXERCISE IV.—PRONOUNS.

Him that presumes much, has much to fear.
They best can bear reproof, whom merit praise.
A few pupils, older than me, excited my emulation.
Every man will find themselves in the state of Adam.
None are more rich than them who are content.
Scotland and thee did in each other live.
These trifles they do not deserve our attention.
Truth is ever to be preferred for it's own sake.
Thou art afraid—else, what ails you?
It is not Lemuel, but God, whom you have offended.
All things which have life, aspire to God.
So great was the multitude who followed him.

He which would advance, should not look backwards. It was Sir Billy—who is an other name for a fop. I take up the arguments in the order they stand. There is nothing, with respect to me, and such as me. He that is bribed, the people will abhor. The day when the accident happened, is not recorded. We know not who to trust; them who seem fair, are false. The reason I told it was this: thee was in danger. I did not know the precise time when it occurred. Here he answers the question, who asks it. Who who beheld the outrage, could remain inactive? This was the prison where we were confined. I could not believe but what it was a reality. It was the boys, and not the dog, which broke the basin. An unprincipled junto is not nice about their means. The people forced its way, and demanded its rights. Avoid lightness and frivolity: it is allied to folly. Either wealth or power may ruin their possessor. It was Joseph, him whom Pharaoh promoted. Origen's mother hid his clothes, to prevent him going. Him that withholdeth corn, the people shall curse him. He that withholdeth corn the people shall curse. I have always thought ye honest till now. Me being but a boy, they took no notice of me. They that receive me, I will richly reward. Had it been them, they would have stopped. Vain pomp and glory of this world, I hate ye. It was not me, that gave you that answer. Between you and I, he is a greater thief than author. Any dunce can copy what you or me shall write. You seem to forget who you are talking to. Thee being a stranger, the child was afraid. This was the most remarkable event which occurred. Happy are them whose pleasure is their duty.

EXERCISE V.—VERBS.

Where was you standing during the transaction?
Was you there when the pistol was fired?
Thou sees how little difference there are.
If he have failed, it was not through my neglect.
Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.
There was many reasons for not disturbing my repose.
The train of brass artillery and other ordnance, are immense.
Art thou the man that camest from Judah?
What eye those long, long labyrinths dare explore?

Magnus and his friends was barbarously treated. The propriety of these restrictions, are unquestionable. And I am one that believe the doctrine. Thou wast he that leddest out and broughtest in Israel. Beauty without virtue generally prove a snare. If thou means to advance, eye those before thee. A qualification for high offices, come not of indolence. The desires of right reason is bounded by competency. Useless studies is nothing but a busy idleness. Is virtue, then, and piety the same? So awful an admonition was these miraculous words. If the great body of the people thinks otherwise. A committee are a body that have only a delegated power. In peace of mind consists our strength and happiness. There is no slander, where love and unity is maintained. His character, as well as his doctrines, were assailed. Proof, and not assertion, are what are required. Right reason and truth is always in unison. No pains nor cost were spared to make it grand. Ignorance stupifies, and is the source of many crimes.

Then wanders forth the sons
Of Belial, flown with insolence and wine.
What you must chiefly rely on, is the attested facts.
No axe or hammer have ever awakened an echo here.
Did not she send, and gave you this information?
Their honours are departing and come to an end.
Neither wit, nor taste, nor learning, appear in it.
Caligula sat himself up for a deity.
A tortoise requested the eagle to learn him to fly.
'O, that it was always spring!' said little Robert.
I at first intended to have arranged it in a new form.
The gaoler supposed that the prisoners had been fled.
Peter saw a vessel, as it had been a great sheet.
Peace and esteem is all that age can hope.

Alas! no wife or mother's care For him the milk or corn prepare. Thou bark that sails with man! Haste, haste to cleave the seas.

EXERCISE VII.—PARTICIPLES.

What dost thou mean by shaking of thy head? A good end warrants not using bad means. Be cautious in forming of connexions.

The worshiping the two calves was still kept up,

In reading of his lecture, he was much embarrassed. This devoting ourselves to God, must be habitual. Their estimating the prize too highly, was evident. He declared the project to be no less than a tempting God. Every deviation from virtue is approaching to vice. It is extremely foolish boasting of immoral achievements. It was the refusing all communion with paganism. Our deepest knowledge is knowing ourselves. He wilfully neglects the obtaining unspeakable good. Retaliating injuries is multiplying offences. These things are certain: there is no denying facts. Publicly vindicating error is openly adopting it. On his father asking him who it was, he answered, 'L' Thus shall we escape being defeated and ruined. Being unjustly liberal is ostentatious pride. Wisdom teaches justly appreciating of all things. The procuring these benefits, was a gratuitous act. Doing good, disinterested good, is not our trade. Such a renouncing the world is a pernicious delusion. Freely indulging the appetite impairs the intellect. The Acts mention Paul preaching of Christ at Damascus. The Acts mention Paul's preaching Christ at Damascus. The Acts mention Paul preaching Christ at Damascus. Constantly beholding objects prevents our admiring them. We purpose taking that route when we go. What was the cause of the young woman fainting? I perceived somebody's creeping through the fence. I was aware of them intending to arrest me. We saw some mischievous boys' worrying of a cat. To pursue fashion, is chasing a bird on the wing. Being very positive, is no real proof of a stable mind. By establishing good laws, our peace is secured. Distinctness is important in delivering orations. He guarantied the permission we demanded being granted. For the easier reading the numbers in the table. Recovering the first surprise, however, we entered boldly.

EXERCISE VII.—ADVERBS, &c.

Respect is lost often by the means used to obtain it. Such were the views of the then ministry. Raillery must be very nice to not offend. Ye know how that it is an unlawful thing. From hence I infer that they were going there, Quaint sayings are long remembered often. I cannot tell you whether this is the fact or no.

Valleys are more fertile generally than mountains. A qualification of usefulness is acquired with study. Frequent transgression makes men slaves of sin. Let nothing induce you ever to utter a falsehood. The idle are, of necessary consequence, ignorant. The wind came about so as we could make no way. Zealots seldom are distinguished by charity. Study is as necessary and even more so than instruction. I never have, and never shall be compensated. Humility neither seeks the first place or the last word. He has never told me nothing more of the matter. These men ranked highly among the nobility. Their bodies are so solid and hard, as you need not fear. Of her brother's political life previously to this event. Attainments made easily, are not of much value often. He has no other merit but that of a compiler. Venus appears uncommonly brightly to-night. Men cannot be forced neither into or out-of true faith. To this man we may commit safely our cause. One crime cannot be a proper remedy to another. Venus is not quite as large as the Earth. It is thinking makes what we read our own. Quagmires have smooth surfaces commonly. He was so much offended, as he would not speak to me. I have put my words in thy mouth. How wilt thou put thy trust on Egypt for chariots?

EXERCISE VIII.—PROMISCUOUS.

In his fathers reign, they were connected and joined. What is the Earth and its dimensions? He is a great deal heavier man than I. The citizens were never denied the privilege. Thankful to Heaven that thou wert left behind. I have met with few who understood men equal to him. He was then recently returned from the east victorious. He hoped that money should have been given him. Laws may, and frequently are made against drunkenness. He appeared in an human shape.

I do not attempt explaining the mysteries of religion.

Ere matter, time, or place were known,
Thou sway'dst these spacious realms alone.
One of the wisest persons that hath been among them.
What is it else but to reject all authority?
They advocate distinctions unworthy any free state.
It would not, and ought not, be felt.

Them who saw the disaster, were greatly alarmed. He knew none fitter to be their judge but himself. Record the names of every one present. We doubt not but we will satisfy the impartial. But time and chance happeneth to them all. You was in hopes to have succeeded to the inheritance. To make light of a small fault, are to commit a greater. Judge not before hearing of the cause. Clear articulation is requisite in publicly speaking. God is the avenger of all breach of faith and injustive. I had a letter began, and nearly half wrote. It is better being suspected than being guilty. Declare the past and present state of things. To insult the afflicted are impious and barbarous. Goodness, and not greatness, lead to happiness. It is pride who whispers, 'What will they think of me?' In judging of others, charity should be exercised. Zanies are willing to befool, to please fools. Questions are easier proposed than answered rightly.

He forms his schemes the flood of vice to stem, But preaching Jesus is not one of them.—J. Taylor.

EXERCISE IX.—PROMIŞCUOUS.

The property of the rebels were confiscated. He was extreme covetous in all his dealings. There were no less than thirty islands. The plot was the easier detected. Of all the books mine has the fewer blots. Who does the house belong to? Is this the person whom you say was present? Knowledge is only to be acquired by application. Policy often prevails upon force. These men were seen enter the house in the night. These works are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's Thomas has bought a bay large horse. Your gold and silver is cankered. Now abideth faith, hope, and charity. And, him destroyed, all this will follow. There is no need for your assistance. To whom our fathers would not obey. Where can we find such an one as this? They sat out early on their journey. Philosophers have often mistook the source of happiness. The books are as old, and perhaps older, than tradition. This chapter is divided in sections.

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I shall treat you as I have them. A prophet mightier than him. Neither he or his brother is capable of it. Richelieu profited of every circumstance. What was the cause of the girl screaming? Let him and I have half of them. I wrote to, and cautioned the captain against it. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue. He that is diligent, you should commend. They ride faster than us. Which of them grammars do you like best? Neither of these are the meaning intended. Did you understand who I was speaking of? Whosoever of you will be chiefest, shall be servant of all. Remember what thou wert, and be humble. Was I deceived? or did a sable cloud Turn forth her silver lining on the night?—Milton.

EXERCISE X.—PROMISCUOUS.

Changed to a worser shape thou canst not be.

For him through hostile camps I bend my way, For him thus prostrate at thy feet I lay.—Pope. Thus oft by mariners are shown

For Godwin's costles overflown—Smitt

Earl Godwin's castles overflown.—Swift. No civil broils have, since his death, arose.

Nor thou, that flings me floundering from thy back. Who should I see but the doctor!

That which once was thee.

To wish him wrestle with affection.

So much she fears for William's life,

That Mary's fate she dare not mourn.—Prior.

Phalaris, who was so much older than her.

They would have given him such satisfaction in other particulars, as a full and happy peace must have ensued.

The woman which we saw, is very amiable.

The three first classes have read.

An union in that which is permanent.

Among every class of people self-interest prevails.

Such conduct is a disgrace of their profession.

His education has been neglected much. There is no other bridge but the one we saw.

He went and laid down to sleep.

Whom do men say that I am?

Take to you handfuls of ashes of the furnace, and let Moses sprinkle it towards the heaven in the sight of Pharach.

In eulogizing of the dead, he slandered the living. If a dog both give the first turn and the last, he shall win. Neither the virtuous or the vicious are exempt from trials. He spoke as if he was in a passion.

Let him take heed lest he fails.

We have all swerved out-of the path of duty.

I cannot agree with him neither.

He both wrote sermons and plays.

If a man say, 'I love God,' and hateth his brother, he is a liar. He has long ago forsaken that party.

It was proved to be her that opened the letter.

Is not this the same man whom we met before?

I forego my claim for peace's sake.

For thou art a girl as much brighter than her, As she was a poet sublimer than me.—Prior.

EXERCISE XI.—PROMISCUOUS.

There remains two points to be settled.

I could not avoid frequently using it.

The Athenians were naturally obliging and agreeable; they were cheerful among each other, and humane to their inferiors.—Goldsmith.

I hope it is not me thou art displeased with.

I never before saw such large trees.

My paper is Ulysses his bow, in which every man of wit and learning may try his strength.—Addison.

Twas thee, whom once Stagyra's grove

Oft with her sage allur'd to rove. - Scott of Amwell.

I could not observe by what gradations other men proceeded in their acquainting themselves with truth.—Locke.

I will show you the way how it is done.

Imprinting, if it signify any thing, is nothing else but the making certain truths to be perceived.—Locke.

This arose from the young man associating with bad people.

Him that never thinks, never can be wise.

It was John's the Baptist head that was cut off.

The Jews are Abraham's, Isaac's, and Jacob's posterity.

Two architects were once candidates for the building a certain temple at Athens.

This treatise is extreme elaborate.

Them descending, the ladder fell.

The scaling ladder of sugared words are set against them.

One or both was there.

What sort of an animal is that?

These things should be never separated.

His excuse was admitted of by his master.

It is not me that he is engaged with.

I intended to have rewarded him according to his merits.

They would become sooner proficients in Latin.

There is many different opinions concerning it.

There are many in town richer than her.

Let you and I be as little at variance as possible.

A coalman, by waking of one of these gentlemen, saved him from ten years imprisonment.

If a man's temper was at his own disposal, he would not choose

to be of either of these parties.

The birds their notes renew, and bleating herds
Attest their joy, that hill and valley rings.—Milton.

EXERCISE XII.—PROMISCUOUS.

But we of the nations beg leave to differ with them.

This is so easy and trivial, as it is a shame to mention it.

You was once quite blind; you neither saw your disease or your remedy.

Fluttering his pennons vain, plumb down he drops Ten thousand fathom deep.—Milton.

The properties of the mirror depends on reflected light. Was you present at the last meeting? Hence has arisen much stiffness and affectation. The nation are powerful both by sea and land. Those set of books was a valuable present. The box contained forty piece of muslin. She is much the taller of the three. They are both remarkable tall men. A mans manners may be pleasing, whose morals are bad. True politeness has it's seat in the heart. He presented him a humble petition. I do not intend to turn a critic on this occasion. At first sight we took it to be they. The certificate was wrote on parchment. I have often swam across the river. I have written four long letters yesterday. I expected to have seen you last week, but I was disappointed. We are besat by dangers on all sides. My father and him were very intimate. Unless he acts prudently, he will not succeed. It was no sooner said but done. Let neither partiality or prejudice appear.

The obligation was ceased long before.

How exquisitely is this all performed in Greek!

Who, when they came to Mount Ephraim, to the house of Micah, they lodged there.

I prevailed with your father to consent.

Always act as justice and honour requires.

Them that transgress the rules, will be punished.

With him is wisdom and strength.

My conductor answered, that it was him.

Be thou, O lovely isle! forever true

To him who more than faithful was to you.—Southwick.

The joys of love, are they not doubly thine,

Ye poor! whose health, whose spirits ne'er decline?—Id.

EXERCISE XIII.—PROMISCUOUS.

Having once suffered the disgrace, it is felt no longer. The meanness or the sin will scarce be dissuasives.

Both temper and distemper consists of contraries.

Which is the cause, the writer or the reader's vanity?

The commission of a generalissimo was also given him. The queen's kindred is styled gentlefolks.

They agree as to the fact, but differ in assigning of reasons.

Their love, and their hatred, and their envy, is now perished.

The inquiry is worthy the attention of every scholar.

Young twigs are easier bent than boughs.

It is not improbable but there are more attractive powers.

By this means an universal ferment was excited.

Who were utterly unable to pronounce some letters, and others very indistinctly.—Sheridan.

All vessels on board of which any person has been sick or died, perform quarantine.

Serverus forbid his subjects to change their religion for that

of the Christian or Jewish.—Jones's Ch. Hist.

Magnus, with four thousand of his supposed accomplices, were

put to death without a trial.—Id.

Art not thou that Egyptian which before these days madest an uproar, and leddest out into the wilderness four thousand men that were murderers?—Acts, xxiii, 38.

Attempting to deceive children into instruction of this kind,

is only deceiving ourselves.—Goldsmith.

There came a woman, having an alabaster box of ointment of spikenard, very precious; and she brake the box and poured it on his head.—Mark, xiv, 3.

My essays, of all my other works, are the most current.

We would suggest the importance of every member, individually, using his influence.

Thy sumptuous buildings, and thy wife's attire, Hath cost a mass of public treasure.—Shakspeare.

EXERCISE XIV.—PROMISCUOUS.

This people who knoweth not the law, are cursed. The people shall be forgiven their iniquity.—Bible. Having been denied the favours which they were promised.

Hold, Rosaline, this favour thou shalt wear;
Hold, take you this, my sweet, and give me thine.
Rely not on any man's fidelity, who is unfaithful to God.
The rules are full as concise, and more clear than before.
For they knew all that his father was a Greek.—Acts.

Thrice was Cæsar offered the crown.

For a mine undiscovered, neither the owner of the ground, or any body else, are ever the richer.

Death may be sudden to him, though it comes by never so

slow degrees.

A brute or a man are an other thing when they are alive, from what they are when dead.—Hale.

I have known the having confessed inability, become the occasion of confirmed impotence.—Taylor.

I am exceeding joyful in all our tribulation.—2 Cor., vii, 4. If so much power, wisdom, goodness, and magnificence, is displayed in the material creation, which is the least considerable part of the universe; how great, how wise, how good must he be, who made and governs the whole!

A good poet no sooner communicates his works, but it is imagined he is a vain young creature, given up to the ambi-

tion of fame.—Pope.

This was a tax upon himself for the not executing the laws. O my people, that dwellest in Zion! be not afraid.—Bible.

As rushing out-of doors, to be resolved,
If Brutus so unkindly knock'd or no.—Shakspeare.

His wrath, which one day will destroy ye both.—*Milton*.

I know thee not—nor ever saw, till now,
Sight more detestable than him and thee.—*Id*.

The season when to come, and when to go,
To sing, or cease to sing, we never know.—*Pope*.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

CHAPTER I.—PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing composition, by points, or stops, for the purpose of showing more clearly the sense and relation of the words, and of noting the different pauses and inflections required in reading.

The following are the principal points, or marks; the Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.], the Dash [—], the Eroteme, or Note of Interrogation [?], the Ecphoneme, or Note of Exclamation [!], and the Curves, or Marks of Parenthesis [()].

Oss.—The pauses that are made in the natural flow of speech, have, in reality, no definite and invariable proportions. Children are often told to pause at a comma while they might count one; at a semicolon, one, two; at a colon, one, two, three; at a period, one, two, three, four. This may be of some use, as teaching them to observe their stops that they may catch sense; but the standard itself is variable, and so are the times which good sense gives to the points. As a final stop, the period is immeasurable. The following general direction is as good as any that can be given.

The Comma denotes the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the Period, or Full Stop, a pause double that of the colon. The pauses required by the other marks, vary according to the structure of the sentence, and their place in it. They may be equal to any of the foregoing.

SECTION I .-- OF THE COMMA.

The Comma is used to separate those parts of a sentence, which are so nearly connected in sense, as to be only one degree removed from that close connexion which admits no point.

Rule I.—Simple Sentences.

A simple sentence does not, in general, admit the comma; as, "The weakest reasoners are the most positive."—W. Allen.

Exception.—When the nominative in a long simple sentence is accompanied by inseparable adjuncts, a comma should be placed before the verb; as, "The assemblage of these vast bodies, is divided into different systems."

RULE II.—SIMPLE MEMBERS.

The simple members of a compound sentence, whether successive or involved, elliptical or complete, are generally divided by the comma; as,

1. "He speaks eloquently, and he acts wisely."

2. "The man, when he saw this, departed."

3. "It may, and it often does happen."

4. "That life is long, which answers life's great end."

5. "As thy days, so shall thy strength be."

Exception 1.—When a relative immediately follows its antecedent, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be introduced before it; as, "The things which are seen, are temporal; but the things which are not seen, are eternal."

—2 Cor., iv, 18.

Exception 2.—When the simple members are short, and closely connected by a conjunction or a conjunctive adverb, the comma is generally omitted; as, "Infamy is worse than death."—"Let him tell me whether the number of the stars be even or odd."

RULE III.-MORE THAN TWO WORDS.

When more than two words or terms are connected in the same construction, by conjunctions expressed or understood, the comma should be inserted after every one of them but the last; and if they are nominatives before a verb, the comma should follow the last also: as,

- "Who, to the enraptur'd heart, and ear, and eye, Teach beauty, virtue, truth, and love, and melody."
- 2. "Ah! what avails * * * * * *

 All that art, fortune, enterprise, can bring,
 If envy, scorn, remorse, or pride, the bosom wring?"
- Women are soft, mild, pitiful, and flexible;
 Thou, stern, obdurate, flinty, rough, remorseless."
- 4. "She plans, provides, expatiates, triumphs there."

OBS.—Two or more words are in the same construction, when they have a common dependence on some other term, and are parsed alike.

RULE IV .- ONLY TWO WORDS.

When only two words or terms are connected by a conjunction, they should not be separated by the comma; as, "Despair and anguish fled the struggling soul."—Goldsmith.

Exception 1.—When the two words connected have several adjuncts, or when one of them has an adjunct that relates not to both, the comma is inserted; as, "Honesty in his dealings, and attention to his business, procured him both esteem and wealth."—"Who is applied to persons, or things personified."—Bullions.

Exception 2.—When the two words connected are emphatically distinguished, the comma is inserted; as,

"Liberal, not lavish, is kind Nature's hand."-Beattie.

"Tis certain he could write, and cipher too."—Goldsmith.

Exception 3.—When there is merely an alternative of words, the comma is inserted; as, "We saw a large opening, or inlet."

Exception 4.—When the conjunction is understood, the comma is inserted; as,

"She thought the isle that gave her birth,
The sweetest, wildest land on earth."—Hogg.

Rule V.—Words in Pairs.

When successive words are joined in pairs by conjunctions, they should be separated in pairs by the comma; as, "Interest and ambition, honour and shame, friendship and enmity, gratitude and revenge, are the prime movers in public transactions."—W. Allen.

RULE VI.-WORDS PUT ABSOLUTE.

Nouns or pronouns put absolute, should, with their adjuncts, be set off by the comma; as, "The prince, his father being dead, succeeded."—"This done, we parted."—"Zaccheus, make haste and come down."—"His prætorship in Sicily, what did it produce?"—Cicero.

Rule VII.—Words in Apposition.

Words put in apposition, (especially if they have adjuncts,) are generally set off by the comma; as, "He that now calls upon thee, is Theodore, the hermit of Teneriffe."—Johnson.

Exception 1.—When several words, in their common order, are used as one compound name, the comma is not inserted; as, "Samuel Johnson,"—"Publius Gavius Cosanus."

Exception 2.—When a common and a proper name are closely united, the comma is not inserted; as, "The brook

Kidron,"—"The river Don,"—"The empress Catharine,"—"Paul the apostle."

Exception 3.—When a pronoun is added to another word merely for emphasis and distinction, the comma is not inserted; as, "Ye men of Athens,"—"I myself,"—"Thou flaming minister."—"You princes."

Exception 4.—When a name acquired by some action or relation, is put in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun, the comma is not inserted: as, "I made the ground my bed;"—"To make him king;"—"Whom they revered as God;"—"With modesty thy guide."—Pope.

Rule VIII.—Adjectives.

Adjectives, when something depends on them, or when they have the import of a dependent clause, should, with their adjuncts, be set off by the comma; as,

- 1. ————"Among the roots
 Of hazel, pendent o'er the plaintive stream,
 They frame the first foundation of their domes."—Thom.
- 2. Shrill-voic'd and loud, the messenger of morn."—Id.

Exception.—When an adjective immediately follows its noun, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be used before it; as,

"On the coast averse from entrance."—Milton.

Rule IX.—Finite Verbs.

Where a finite verb is understood, a comma is generally required: as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."—Murray.

RULE X.—INFINITIVES.

The infinitive mood, when it follows a verb from which it must be separated, or when it depends on something remote or understood, is generally, with its adjuncts, set off by the comma; as, "His delight was, to assist the distressed."—"To conclude, I was reduced to beggary."

"The Governor of all—has interposed,
Not seldom, his avenging arm, to smite
The injurious trampler upon nature's law."—Comper.

Rule XI.—Participles.

Participles, when something depends on them, when they have the import of a dependent clause, or when they relate to

something understood, should, with their adjuncts, be set off by the comma+ as,

1. "Young Edwin, lighted by the evening star,
Ling'ring and list'ning, wander'd down the vale."—Beattie.

2. "United, we stand; divided, we fall."

3. "Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance."

Exception.—When a participle immediately follows its noun, and is taken in a restrictive sense, the comma should not be used before it; as,

"A man renown'd for repartee,
Will seldom scruple to make free
With friendship's finest feeling."—Cowper.

RULE XII.—ADVERBS.

Adverbs, when they break the connexion of a simple sentence, or when they have not a close dependence on some particular word in the context, should be set off by the comma; as, "We must not, however, confound this gentleness with the artificial courtesy of the world."—"Besides, the mind must be employed."—Gilpin. "Most unquestionably, no fraud was equal to all this."—Lyttelton.

Rule XIII.—Conjunctions.

Conjunctions, when they are separated from the principal clause that depends on them, or when they introduce an example, are generally set off by the comma; as, "But, by a timely call upon Religion, the force of Habit was eluded."—Johnson.

RULE XIV.—PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions and their objects, when they break the connexion of a simple sentence, or when they do not closely follow the words on which they depend, are generally set off by the comma; as, "Fashion is, for the most part, nothing but the ostentation of riches."—"By reading, we add the experience of others to our own."

Rule XV.—Interjections.

Interjections are sometimes set off by the comma; as, "For, lo, I will call all the families of the kingdoms of the north."—
Jeremiah, i, 15.

RULE XVI.—WORDS REPEATED.

A word emphatically repeated, is generally set off by the comma; as, "Happy, happy, happy pair!"—Dryden. "Ah! no, no, no."—Id.

Rule XVII.—Dependent Quotations.

A quotation or observation, when it is introduced by a verb, (as, say, reply, and the like,) is generally separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma; as, "'The book of nature,' said he, 'is open before thee.'"—"I say unto all, Watch."

SECTION II .- OF THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the comma, nor so little dependent as those which require the colon.

Rule I.—Compound Members.

When several compound members, some or all of which require the comma, are constructed into a period, they are generally separated by the semicolon: as, "In the regions inhabited by angelic natures, unmingled felicity forever blooms; joy flows there with a perpetual and abundant stream, nor needs any mound to check its course."—Carter.

RULE II.—SIMPLE MEMBERS.

When several simple members, each of which is complete in sense, are constructed into a period; if they require a pause greater than that of the comma, they are usually separated by the semicolon: as, "Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom."—Murray.

"A longer care man's helpless kind demands;
That longer care contracts more lasting bands."—Pope.

Rule III.—Apposition, &c.

Words in apposition, in disjunct pairs, or in any other construction, if they require a pause greater than that of the comma, and less than that of the colon, may be separated by the semicolon: as, "There are five moods; the infinitive, the indicative, the potential, the subjunctive, and the imperative."

SECTION III .-- OF THE COLON.

The Colon is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the semicolon, nor so little dependent as those which require the period.

Rule I.—Additional Remarks.

When the preceding clause is complete in itself, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration, especially if

no conjunction is used, the colon is generally and properly inserted: as, "Avoid evil doers: in such society an honest man may become ashamed of himself."—"See that moth fluttering incessantly round the candle: man of pleasure, behold thy image."—Kames.

Rule II.—Greater Pauses.

When the semicolon has been introduced, and a still greater pause is required within the period, the colon should be employed: as, "Princes have courtiers, and merchants have partners; the voluptuous have companions, and the wicked have accomplices: none but the virtuous can have friends."

RULE III.—INDEPENDENT QUOTATIONS.

A quotation introduced without dependence on a verb or a conjunction, is generally preceded by the colon; as, "In his last moments he uttered these words: 'I fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury.'"

SECTION IV .--- OF THE PERIOD.

The Period, or Full Stop, is used to mark an entire and independent sentence, whether simple or compound.

Rule I.—Distinct Sentences.

When a sentence is complete in respect to sense, and independent in respect to construction, it should be marked with the period: as, "Every deviation from truth is criminal. Abhor a falsehood. Let your words be ingenuous. Sincerity possesses the most powerful charm."

Rule II .- Allied Sentences.

The period is often employed between two sentences which have a general connexion, expressed by a personal pronoun, a conjunction, or a conjunctive adverb; as, "The selfish man languishes in his narrow circle of pleasures. They are confined to what affects his own interests. He is obliged to repeat the same gratifications, till they become insipid. But the man of virtuous sensibility moves in a wider sphere of felicity."—Blair.

Rule III.—Abbreviations.

The period is generally used after abbreviations, and very often to the exclusion of other points; but, as in this case it is not a constant sign of pause, other points may properly follow it, if the words written in full would demand them: as, A. D. for Anno Domini;—Pro tem. for pro tempore;—Ult. for wi-

timo;—i. e. for id est, that is;—Add., Spect., No. 285; i. e., Addison, in the Spectator, Number 285th.

"Consult the statute; 'quart.' I think, it is, 'Edwardi sext.,' or 'prim. et quint. Eliz.'"—Pope, p. 399.

SECTION V .--- OF THE DASH.

The Dash is mostly used to denote an unexpected or emphatic pause of variable length; but sometimes it is a sign of faltering; sometimes, of omission: if set after an other sign of pause, it usually lengthens the interval.

Rule I.—Abrupt Pauses.

A sudden interruption or transition should be marked with the dash; as, "'I must inquire into the affair, and if'—'And if' interrupted the farmer."

"Here lies the great—false marble, where? Nothing but sordid dust lies here."—Young.

Rule II.—Emphatic Pauses.

To mark a considerable pause, greater than the structure of the sentence or the points inserted, would seem to require, the dash may be employed; as,

"And now they part—to meet no more."
 "Revere thyself;—and yet thyself despise."

3. "Behold the picture !—Is it like?—Like whom?"

RULE III.—FAULTY DASHES.

Dashes needlessly inserted, or substituted for other stops more definite, are in general to be treated as errors in punctuation. Example: "—You shall go home directly, Le Fevre, said my uncle Toby, to my house,—and we'll send for a doctor to see what's the matter,—and we'll have an apothecary,—and the corporal shall be your nurse;—and I'll be your servant, Le Fevre."—Sterne: Enfield's Speaker, p. 306. Better thus: "'You shall go home directly, Le Fevre,' said my uncle Toby, 'to my house; and we'll send for a doctor to see what's the matter; and we'll have an apothecary; and the corporal shall be your nurse: and I'll be your servant, Le Fevre.'"

SECTION VI.-OF THE EROTEME.

The Eroteme, or Note of Interrogation, is used to designate a question.

Rule I.—Questions Direct.

Questions expressed directly as such, if finished, should always be followed by the note of interrogation; as,

"In life, can love be bought with gold?

Are friendship's pleasures to be sold?"—Johnson.

RULE II.—QUESTIONS UNITED.

When two or more questions are united in one compound sentence, the comma or semicolon is sometimes placed between them, and the note of interrogation, after the last only; as,

"Truths would you teach, or save a sinking land?
All fear, none aid you, and few understand."—Pope.

RULE III .- QUESTIONS INDIRECT.

When a question is mentioned, but not put directly as a question, it loses both the quality and the sign of interrogation; as, "The Cyprians asked me why I wept."—Murray.

SECTION VII.-OF THE ECPHONEME.

The Ecphoneme, or Note of Exclamation, is used to denote a pause with some strong or sudden emotion of the mind; and, as a sign of great wonder, it may be repeated!!!

Rule I.—Interjections, &c.

Interjections, and other expressions of great emotion, are generally followed by the note of exclamation; as,

"O! let me listen to the words of life!"—Thomson.

RULE II .- INVOCATIONS.

After an earnest address or solemn invocation, the note of exclamation is usually preferred to any other point; as, "Whereupon, O king Agrippa! I was not disobedient unto the heavenly vision."—Acts, xxvi, 19.

RULE III.—Exclamatory Questions.

Words uttered with vehemence in the form of a question, but without reference to an answer, should be followed by the note of exclamation; as, "How madly have I talked!"—Young.

SECTION VIII .- OF THE CURVES.

The Curves, or Marks of Parenthesis, are used to distinguish a clause or hint that is hastily thrown in between the parts of a sentence to which it does not properly belong; as,

"To others do (the law is not severe)

What to thyself thou wishest to be done."—Beattie.

Oss.—The incidental clause should be uttered in a lower tone, and faster than the principal sentence. It always requires a pause as great as that of a comma, or greater.

11*

Rule I.—The Parenthesis.

A clause that breaks the unity of a sentence too much to be incorporated with it, and only such, should be enclosed as a parenthesis; as,

"Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below."—Pope.

RULE II.—INCLUDED POINTS.

The curves do not supersede other stops; and, as the parenthesis terminates with a pause equal to that which precedes it, the same point should be included, except when the sentences differ in form: as,

1. "Man's thirst of happiness declares it is:
(For nature never gravitates to nought:)

That thirst unquench'd, declares it is not here."- Young.

2. "Night visions may be friend: (as sung above:)
Our waking dreams are fatal. How I dreamt
Of things impossible! (could sleep do more?)
Of joys perpetual in perpetual change."— Young.

SECTION IX.--OF THE OTHER MARKS.

There are also several other marks, which are occasionally used for various purposes, as follow:—

1. ['] The Apostrophè usually denotes either the possessive case of a noun, or the elision of one or more letters of a word: as, "The girl's regard to her parents' advice;"—'gan, lov'd, e'en, thro'; for began, loved, even, through.

2. [-] The Hyphen connects the parts of many compound words, especially such as have two accents; as, ever-living. It is also frequently inserted where a word is divided into syllables; as, con-tem-plate. Placed at the end of a line, it shows that one or more syllables of a word are carried forward to the next line.

3. ["] The Diæresis, or Dialysis, placed over either of two contiguous vowels, shows that they are not a diphthong; as, Danäe, aërial.

4. ['] The Acute Accent marks the syllable which requires the principal stress in pronunciation; as, équal, equal'ity. It is sometimes used in opposition to the grave accent, to distinguish a close or short vowel; as, "Fáncy:" (Murray:) or to denote the rising inflection of the voice; as, "Is it hé?"

5. ['] The *Grave Accent* is used in opposition to the acute, to distinguish an open or long vowel, as, "Fàvour:" (Murray:) or to denote the falling inflection of the voice; as,

"Yès; it is hè."

6. [] The Circumflex generally denotes either the broad sound of a, or an unusual and long sound given to some other vowel; as in eclât, âll, hêir, machine, môve, bûll.
7. [] The Breve, or Stenotone, is used to denote either a

close vowel or a syllable of short quantity; as, raven, to de-

8. [] The Macron, or Macrotone, is used to denote either an open vowel or a syllable of long quantity; as, raven, a bird.

9. [—] or [****] The Ellipsis, or Suppression, denotes the omission of some letters or words; as, K-g, for King.

10. [A] The Caret, used only in writing, shows where to insert words or letters that have been accidentally omitted.

- 11. [~] The Brace serves to unite a triplet; or to connect several terms with something to which they are all related.
- 12. [8] The Section marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter; and, with the help of numbers, serves to abridge references.
- 13. $\lceil \P \rceil$ The Paragraph (chiefly used in the Bible) denotes the commencement of a new subject. The parts of discourse which are called paragraphs, are, in general, sufficiently distinguished, by beginning a new line, and carrying the first word a little forwards or backwards.
- 14. | "" | The Guillemets, or Quotation Points, distinguish words that are taken from an other author or speaker. A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points; which, when both are employed, are placed within the others.

15. [1] The Crotchets, or Brackets, generally enclose some correction or explanation, or the subject to be explained; as,

"He [the speaker] was of a different opinion."

16. The Index, or Hand, points out something remarkable, or what the reader should particularly observe.

17. [*] The Asterisk, or Star, [†] the Obelisk, or Dagger, [‡] the Diesis, or Double Dagger, and [||] the Parallels, refer to marginal notes. The Section also [§], and the Paragraph [¶], are often used for marks of reference, the former being usually applied to the fourth, and the latter to the sixth note on a page; for, by the usage of printers, these signs are now commonly introduced in the following order: 1*, 2†, 3‡, 48, 5 , 6 , 7 **, 8 + , &c. When many references are to be made, the small letters of the alphabet, or the numerical figures, in their order, may be conveniently used for the same purpose.

18. [** The Asterism, or Three Stars, a sign not very

often used, is placed before a long or general note, to mark it

as a note, without giving it a particular reference.

19. [c] The Cedilla is a mark borrowed from the French, by whom it is placed under the letter c to give it the sound of s before a or o; as, in the words, "façade," "Alençon." In Worcester's Dictionary, it is attached to three other letters, to denote their soft sounds: viz., "G as J; S as Z; x as gz."

For oral exercises in punctuation, the teacher may select any well-pointed book, to which the foregoing rules and explanations may be applied by the pupil. An application of the principles of punctuation, either to points rightly inserted, or in the correction of errors, is as easy a process as ordinary syntactical parsing or correcting; and, in proportion to the utility of these principles, as useful. The exercise, in relation to correct pointing, consists in reading some passage, in successive parts, according to its points; naming the latter, as they occur; and repeating the rules or doctrines of punctuation, as the reasons for the marks employed.]

CHAPTER II.—UTTERANCE.

Utterance is the art of vocal expression. It includes the principles of pronunciation and elocution.

SECTION I.—OF PRONUNCIATION.

Pronunciation, as distinguished from elocution, is the

utterance of words taken separately.

Pronunciation requires a knowledge of the just powers of the letters in all their combinations, and of the force and seat of the accent.

I. The Just Powers of the letters, are those sounds which

are given to them by the best readers.

II. Accent is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular syllable of a word, whereby that syllable is distinguished from the rest; as, grám-mar, gram-má-ri-an.

Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its sylla-

bles accented.

When the word is long, for the sake of harmony or distinctness, we often give a secondary or less forcible accent to an other syllable; as, to the last of tém-per-a-ture, and to the second of in-dém-ni-fi-cá-tion.

A full and open pronunciation of the long vowel sounds, a clear articulation of the consonants, a forcible and well-placed accent, and a distinct utterance of the unaccented syllables, distinguish the elegant speaker.

[ESF For a full explanation of the principles of pronunciation, the learner is referred to Walker's Critical Pronouncing Dictionary; for authorities in reference to variable usage, to the Universal and Critical Dictionary of J. E. Worcester.]

SECTION IL --- OF ELOCUTION.

Elecution is the utterance of words that are arranged into sentences, and form discourse.

Elocution requires a knowledge, and right application,

of emphasis, pauses, inflections, and tones.

I. Emphasis is the peculiar stress of voice which we lay upon some particular word or words in a sentence, which are thereby distinguished from the rest, as being more especially significant.

II. Pauses are cessations in utterance, which serve equally to relieve the speaker, and to render language intelligible and pleasing. The duration of the pauses should be proportionate to the degree of connexion between the parts of the discourse.

III. Inflections are those peculiar variations of the human voice, by which a continuous sound is made to pass from one note, key, or pitch, into an other. The passage of the voice from a lower to a higher or shriller note, is called the rising or upward inflection. The passage of the voice from a higher to a lower or graver note, is called the falling or downward inflection. These two opposite inflections may be heard in the following examples: 1. The rising, "Do you mean to gó?"

2. The falling, "When will you gò?"

Oss.—Questions that may be answered by yes or no, require the rising inflection; those that demand any other answer, must be uttered with the falling inflection.

IV. Tones are those modulations of the voice, which depend upon the feelings of the speaker. They are what Sheridan denominates "the language of emotions." And it is of the utmost importance, that they be natural, unaffected, and rightly adapted to the subject and to the occasion: for, upon them, in a great measure, depends all that is pleasing or interesting in elecution.

CHAPTER III.—FIGURES.

A Figure, in grammar, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling, formation, construction, or application, of words. There are, accordingly, figures of Orthography, figures of Etymology, figures of Syntax, and figures of Rhetoric. When figures are judiciously employed, they both strengthen and adorn expression. They occur more frequently in poetry than in prose; and several of them are merely poetic licenses.

SECTION I .- FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

A Figure of Orthography is an intentional deviation from the ordinary or true spelling of a word.

The principal figures of Orthography are two; namely,

Mi-me'-sis and Ar'-cha-ism.

I. Minesis is a ludicrous imitation of some mistake or mispronunciation of a word, in which the error is mimicked by a false spelling, or the taking of one word for an other; as, "Maister, says he, have you any wery good weal in your vallet?"—Columbian Orator, p. 292. "Ay, he was porn at Monmouth, captain Gower."—Shak. "I will description the matter to you, if you be capacity of it."—Id.

"Perdigious! I can hardly stand."—Lloyd.

II. An Archaism is a word or phrase expressed according to ancient usage, and not according to our modern orthography; as, "Newe grene chese of smalle clammynes comfortethe hotte stomake."—T. PAYNEL: Tooke's Diversions, ii, 132.

"With him was rev'rend Contemplation pight,

Bow-bent with eld, his beard of snowy hue."—Beattie.

SECTION II.—FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

A Figure of Etymology is an intentional deviation from the ordinary formation of a word.

The principal figures of Etymology are eight; namely, A-phær-e-sis, Pros'-the-sis, Syn'-co-pe, A-poc'-o-pe, Par-a-go'-ge, Di-ær'-e-sis, Syn-ær'-e-sis, and Tme'-sis.

I. Aphæresis is the elision of some of the initial letters of a word: as, 'gainst, 'gan, 'neath,—for against, began, beneath.

II. Prosthesis is the prefixing of an expletive syllable to a word: as, adown, appaid, bestrown, evanished, yelad,—for down, paid, strown, vanished, clad.

III. Syncope is the elision of some of the middle letters of a word: as, med'cine, for medicine; e'en, for even; o'er, for over; cong'ring, for conquering; se'nnight, for sevennight.

IV. Apocopè, is the elision of some of the final letters of a word: as, tho', for though; th', for the; t'other, for the other.

V. Paragogè is the annexing of an expletive syllable to a word: as, withouten, for without; deary, for dear; Johnny, for John.

VI. Diæresis is the separating of two vowels that might form a diphthong: as, coöperate, not cooperate; aëronaut, not æronaut; orthoëpy, not orthæpy.

VII. Synæresis is the sinking of two syllables into one: as, seest, for seëst; tacked, for tack-ed; drowned, for drown-ed.

Obs.—When a vowel is entirely suppressed in pronounciation, (whether retained in writing or not,) the consonants connected with it, fall into an other syllable; thus, tried, triest, loved or lov'd, lovest or lov'st, are monosyllables; except in solemn discourse, in which the e is generally retained and made vocal.

VIII. Tmesis is the inserting of a word between the parts of a compound; as, "On which side soever;"-"To us ward:" -"To God ward."

SECTION III.-FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A Figure of Syntax is an intentional deviation from the ordinary construction of words.

The principal figures of Syntax are five; namely, El-lip'-sis,

Ple'-o-nasm, Syl-lep'-sis, En-al'-la-ge, and Hy-per'-ba-ton.

I. Ellipsis* is the omission of some word or words which are necessary to complete the construction, but not necessary to convey the meaning. Such words are said to be understood; because they are received as belonging to the sentence, though they are not uttered.

Almost all compound sentences are more or less elliptical. There may be an omission of any of the parts of speech, or even of a whole clause; but the omission of articles or interjections can scarcely constitute a proper ellipsis. Examples:

1. Of the Article; as, "A man and [a] woman."—"The

day, [the] month, and [the] year."

2. Of the Noun; as, "The common [law] and the statute law."—"The twelve [apostles]."—"One [book] of my books."—"A dozen [bottles] of wine." - A dozen [bottles] of wine.

3. Of the Adjective; as, "There are subjects proper for the

one, and not [proper] for the other."—Kames.

4. Of the Pronoun; as, "I love [him] and [I] fear him."— "The estates [which] we own."

^{*} There never can be an clipsis of any thing which is either unnecessary to the construction or necessary to the sense; for to say what we mean and nothing more, never can constitute a deviation from the ordinary grammatical construction of words. As a figure of Syntax, therefore, the ellipsis can be only of such words as are so evidently suggested to the reader, that the writer is as fully answerable for them as if he had written them. To suppose an ellipsis where there is none, or to overlook one where the really occurs, is to pervert or mutilate the text, in order to accommodate it to the parser's ignorance of the principles of syntax. There never can be either a general uniformity or a self-consistency in our methods of parsing, or in our notions of grammar, till the true nature of an ellipsis is clearly ascertained; so that the writer shall distinguish it from a biundering omission that impairs the sense, and the reader be barred from an arbitrary insertion of what would be cumbrous and useless. By adopting losse and extravagant ideas of the nature of this figure, some pretenders to learning and philosophy have been led into the most whimsical and opposite notions concerning the grammatical construction of language. Thus, with equal absurdity, Cardell and Sherman, in their Philosophic Grammars, attempt to confute the docurines of their predecessors, by supposing ellipses at pleasure. And while the former teaches, that prepositions do not govern the objective case, but that every verb is transitive, and governs at least two objects, expressed or understood, its own and that of a preposition; the latter, with just as good an argument, contends, that no verb is transitive, but that every objective case is governed by a preposition expressed or understood.

A world of nonsense for lack of a definition!

5. Of the Verb; as, "Who did this? I" [did it].—"To whom thus Eve, yet sinless" [spoke].

6. Of the Participle; as, "That [being] o'er, they part."

7. Of the Adverb; as, "He spoke [wisely] and acted wisely."

-" Exceedingly great and [exceedingly] powerful."

8. Of the Conjunction; as, "The fruit of the Spirit is love, [and] joy, [and] peace, [and] long-suffering, [and] gentleness, [and] goodness, [and] faith, [and] meekness, [and] temperance."—Gal., v, 22. The repetition of the conjunction is called Polysyndeton; and the omission of it, Asyndeton.

9. Of the *Preposition*; as, "[On] this day."—"[In] next month."—"He departed [from] this life."—"He gave [to] me

a book."-"To walk [through] a mile."

10. Of the Interjection; as, "Oh! the frailty, [Oh!] the

wickedness of men!"

11. Of a *Phrase* or *Clause*; as, "The active commonly do more than they are bound to do; the indolent [commonly do]

less" [than they are bound to do].

II. Pleonam is the introduction of superfluous words. This figure is allowable only, when, in animated discourse, it abruptly introduces an emphatic word, or repeats an idea to impress it more strongly; as, "He that hath ears to hear, let him hear!"—"All ye inhabitants of the world, and dwellers on the earth!"—"There shall not be left one stone upon an other, that shall not be thrown down."—"I know thee who thou art."—Bible. A Pleonasm is sometimes impressive and elegant; but an unemphatic repetition of the same idea, is one of the worst faults of bad writing.

III. Syllepsis is agreement formed according to the figurative sense of a word, or the mental conception of the thing spoken of, and not according to the literal or common use of the term; it is therefore, in general, connected with some figure of rhetoric: as, "The Word was made flesh and dwelt among us, and we beheld his glory."—John, i, 14. "Then Philip went down to the city of Samaria, and preached Christ unto them."—Acts, viii, 5. "While Evening draws her crim-

son curtains round."—Thomson.

IV. Enallage is the use of one part of speech, or of one modification for an other. This figure borders closely upon solecism;* and, for the stability of the language, it should be

^{*} Deviations of this kind are, in general, to be considered solecisms; otherwise the rules of grammar would be of no use or authority. Desputier, an ancient Latin grammarian, gave an improper latitude to this figure, under the name of Antiposis; and Behourt and others extended it still further. But Sanctius says, "Antiposi grammaticorum nitali imperitius, quod figmentum et esect verum, frustra quareretur, quem casum verba regerent." And the Messieurs De Port Royal reject the figure

sparingly indulged. There are, however, several forms of it which can appeal to good authority: as,

- You know that you are Brutus, that speak this."—Shak.
 "They fall successive [ly], and successive [ly] rise."—Pope.
- 3. "Than whom [who] none higher sat."—Milton.
- 4. "Sure some disaster has befell" [befallen].—Gay.
- So furious was that onset's shock,
 Destruction's gates at once unlock."—Hogg.

V. Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "He wanders earth around."—Cowper. "Rings the world with the vain stir."—Id. "Whom therefore ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."—Acts. This figure is much employed in poetry. A judicious use of it confers harmony, variety, strength, and vivacity upon composition. But care should be taken lest it produce ambiguity or obscurity.

SECTION IV .--- FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A Figure of Rhetoric is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words. Some figures of this kind are commonly called *Tropes*, i. e., turns.

Numerous departures from perfect simplicity of diction, occur in almost every kind of composition. They are mostly founded on some similitude or relation of things, which, by the power of imagination, is rendered conducive to ornament or illustration.

The principal figures of Rhetoric are fourteen; namely Sim'-i-le, Met-a-phor, Al'-le-gor-y, Me-ton'-y-my, Syn-ec'-do-che, Hy-per'-bo-le, Vis'-ion, A-pos'-tro-phe, Per-son'-i-fi-ca'-tion, Er-o-te'-sis, Ec-pho-ne'-sis, An-tith'-e-sis, Cli'-max, and I'-ro-ny.

I. A Simile is a simple and express comparison; and is generally introduced by like, as, or so: as,

"At first, like thunder's distant tone, The rattling din came rolling on."—Hogg.

"Man, like the generous vine, supported lives;
The strength he gains, is from th' embrace he gives."—Pope.

- II. A *Metaphor* is a figure that expresses the resemblance of two objects by applying either the name, or some attribute adjunct, or action of the one, directly to the other; as,
 - 1. "His eye was morning's brightest ray."—Hogg.
 - 2. "An angler in the tides of fame."—Id.

altogether. There are, however, some changes of this kind, which the grammarian is not competent to condemn, though they do not accord with the ordinary principles of construction. $QQ^{\frac{1}{2}}$

- 3. "Beside him sleeps the warrior's bow."—Langhorne.
- 4. "Wild fancies in his moody brain,

Gambol'd unbridled and unbound."-Hogg.

- 5. "Speechless, and fix'd in all the death of wo."—Thom.
- III. An Allegory is a continued narration of fictitious events. designed to represent and illustrate important realities. the Psalmist represents the Jewish nation under the symbol of a vine: "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it, and didst cause it to take deep root; and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars."—Ps., lxxx, 8.

One.—The Allogory, agreeably to the foregoing definition of it, includes most of those similitudes which in the Scriptures are called parables; it includes also the better sort of fables. The term allogory is sometimes applied to a true kistory in which something else is intended, than is contained in the words literally taken. [See Gal., iv, 24.] In the Scriptures, the term fable denotes an idle and groundless story. [See 1 Tun., iv, 1; and 2 Pat., i, 16.]

IV. A Metonymy is a change of names. It is founded on some such relation as that of cause and effect, of subject and adjunct, of place and inhabitant, of container and thing contained, or of sign and thing signified: as, "God is our salvation;" i. e., Saviour.—"He was the sigh of her secret soul;" i. e., the youth she loved.—"They smote the city;" i. e., citizens.—"My son, give me thy heart;" i. e., affection.—"The sceptre shall not depart from Judah; i. e., kingly power.

V. Synedoche is the naming of the whole for a part, or of a part for the whole; as, "This roof [i. e., house] protects you."—" Now the year [i. e., summer] is beautiful."

VI. Hyperbole is extravagant exaggeration, in which the imagination is indulged beyond the sobriety of truth; as,

"The sky shrunk upward with unusual dread, And trembling Tiber div'd beneath his bed."—Dryden.

VII. Vision, or Imagery, is a figure by which the speaker represents the objects of his imagination, as actually before his eyes, and present to his senses; as,

"I see the dagger-crest of Mar! I see the Moray's silver star Wave o'er the cloud of Saxon war, That up the lake comes winding far !"—Scott.

VIII. Apostrophe is a turning from the regular course of the subject, into an animated address; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death! where is thy sting? O Grave! where is thy victory?"—1 Cor., xv, 54, 55.

IX. Personification is a figure by which, in imagination, we

ascribe intelligence and personality to unintelligent beings or abstract qualities; as,

1. "The Worm, aware of his intent,

Harangued him thus, right eloquent."—Cowper.

2. "Lo, steel-clad War his gorgeous standard rears!"—Rog.

3, "Hark! Truth proclaims, thy triumphs cease."—Id.

X. Erotesis is a figure in which the speaker adopts the form of interrogation, not to express a doubt, but, in general, confidently to assert the reverse of what is asked; as, "Hast thou an arm like God? or canst thou thunder with a voice like him?"—Job, xl, 9. "He that planted the ear, shall he not hear? he that formed the eye, shall he not see?"—Ps., xciv, 9.

XI. Ecphonesis is a pathetic exclamation, denoting some violent emotion of the mind; as, "O liberty!—O sound once delightful to every Roman ear!—O sacred privilege of Roman citizenship!—once sacred—now trampled upon!"—Cicero. "O that I had wings like a dove! for then would I fly away and be at rest!"—Ps., lv, 6.

XII. Antithesis is a placing of things in opposition, to heighten

their effect by contrast; as,

"Contrasted faults through all his manners reign; Though poor, luxurious; though submissive, vain; Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue;

And e'en in penance, planning sins anew."—Goldsmith. XIII. Climax is a figure in which the sense is made to advance by successive steps, to rise gradually to what is more and more important and interesting, or to descend to what is more and more minute and particular; as, "And beside this, giving all diligence, add to your faith, virtue; and to virtue, knowledge; and to knowledge, temperance; and to temperance, patience; and to patience, godliness; and to godliness, brotherly kindness; and to brotherly kindness, charity."—2 Peter, i, 5.

XIV. Irony is a figure in which the speaker sneeringly utters the direct reverse of what he intends shall be understood; as, "We have, to be sure, great reason to believe the modest man would not ask him for a debt, when he pursues his life."

--- Cicero.

CHAPTER IV.—VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the art of arranging words into lines of correspondent length, so as to produce harmony by the regular alternation of syllables differing in quantity.

SECTION I .-- OF QUANTITY.

The Quantity of a syllable, is the relative portion oftime occupied in uttering it. In poetry, every syllable is considered to be either long or short. A long syllable is reckoned to be equal to two short ones.

One. 1.—The quantity of a syllable does not depend on the sound of the vowel or diphthong, but principally on the degree of accentual force with which the syllable is uttered, whereby a greater or less portion of time is employed. The open vowel sounds are those which are the most easily protracted, yet they often occur in the shortest and feeblest syllables.

One. 2.—Most monosyllables are variable, and may be made either long or short, as suits the rhythm. In words of greater length, the accented syllable is always long; and a syllable immediately before or after that which is accented, is always short.

SECTION II.—OF RHYME.

Rhyme is a similarity of sound, between the last syllables of different lines or half lines. Blank verse is verse without rhyme.

Oss.—The principal rhyming syllables are almost always long. Double rhyme adds one snort syllable; triple rhyme, two. Such syllables are redundant in iambic and anapestic verses.

SECTION III.—OF POETIC FEET.

A line of poetry consists of successive combinations of syllables, called feet. A poetic foot, in English, consists either of two or of three syllables.

The principal English feet are the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, the Anapest, and the Dactyl.

1. The *Iambus*, or *Iamb*, is a poetic foot consisting of a short syllable and a long one; as, betrāy, confess.

2. The Trochee, or Choree, is a poetic foot consisting of a long syllable and a short one; as, hātefül, pēttīsh.

3. The Anapest is a poetic foot consisting of two short syllables and one long one; as, contravene, acquiesce.

4. The Dactyl is a poetic foot consisting of one long syllable and two short ones; as, labourer, possible.

We have, accordingly, four principal kinds of verse, or poetic measure; Iambic, Trochaic, Anapestic, and Dactylic.

Oss. 1.—The more pure these several kinds are preserved, the more exact and complete is the chime of the verse. But poets generally indulge some variety; not so much, however, as to confound the drift of the rhythmical

Oss. 2.—Among the occasional diversifications of metre, are sometimes found or supposed sundry other feet, which are called secondary: as, the Spondse, a foot of two long syllables; the Pyrrhic, of two short: the Moloss, of three long syllables; the Tribrach, of three short: the Amphibrach, a long syllable with a short one on each side; the Amphimac, Amphimacer, or Cresic, a short syllable with a long one on each side: the Bacchy, a short syllable

and two long ones; the Antibaccky, or Hypobaccky, two long syllables and a short one. Yet few, if any, of these feet, are really necessary to a sufficient explanation of English verse; and the adopting of so many is liable to the great objection, that we thereby produce different modes of measuring the same lines.

One. 8.—Sometimes also verses are variegated by what is called the pedal exercity, or cover; (i. e., cutting;) which is a single long syllable counted by itself as a foot. For, despite the shaurd suggestions of many grammarians and prosodists to the contrary, all metrical deficiencies and redundancies embrace nothing but short syllables, and the number of long ones in a line is almost always the number of feet which compose it: as,

"Keeping | time, | time, | time, In a | sort of | Runic | rhyme."—E. A. Pos.

SECTION IV .-- OF SCANNING.

Scanning, or Scansion, is the dividing of verses into the feet which compose them, according to the several orders of poetic numbers, or the different kinds of metre.

One.—When a syllable is wanting, the verse is said to be catalectic; when the measure is exact, the line is acatalectic; when there is a redundant syllable, it forms hypermeter, or a line hypercatalectic.

ORDER L-IAMBIC VERSE.

In Iambic verse, the stress is laid on the even syllables, and the odd ones are short. It consists of the following measures:—

Measure 1st.—Iambic of Eight Feet, or Octometer.

"O āll | yĕ pēo|-plĕ, clāp | yŏur hānds, | ănd with | trïūm|phănt vōic|-ĕs sīng;

No force | the might -y pow'r | withstands | of God | the u|-nivers al King."

Obs.—Each couplet of this verse is now commonly reduced to, or exchanged for, a simple stanza of four tetrameter lines; thus,—

"The hour | is come | —the cher|-ish'd hour,
When from | the bus|-y world | set free,
I seek | at length | my lone|-ly bower,
And muse | in si|-lent thought | on thee."—Hook.

Measure 2d.—Iambic of Seven Feet, or Heptameter.

"The Lord | descend | ed from | above, | and bow'd | the heav | ens high."

One.—Modern poets have divided this kind of verse, into alternate lines of four and of three feet; thus,—

"O blind | to each | indul|-gent aim Of pow'r | supreme|-ly wise, Who fan|-cy hap|-piness | in aught The hand | of heav'n | denies!"

Measure 3d.—Iambic of Six Feet, or Hexameter.

"Thy realm | fŏrēv|-ĕr lāsts, | thy ōwn | Mĕssī|-ăh rēigns."

Oss.—This is the *Alexandrins*; it is seldom used except to complete a stanza in an ode, or occasionally to close a period in heroic rhyme. French beroics are similar to this.

Measure 4th.—Iambic of Five Feet, or Pentameter.

"For praise | too dear - ly lov'd | or warm - ly sought. Enfee |-bles all | inter |-nal strength | of thought."

"With soll-emn adl-oral-tion down they cast

Their crowns | inwove | with am |-arant | and gold."

OBS. 1.—This is the regular English heroic. It is, perhaps, the only measure suitable for blank verse.

Oss. 2.—The Elegiac Stanza consists of four heroics rhyming alternately; 88,

"Enough | has Heav'n | indulg'd | of joy | below,
To tempt | our tar|-riance in | this lov'd | retreat;
Enough | has Heav'n | ordain'd | of use|-ful wo,
To make | us lang|-uish for | a hap|-pier seat."

Measure 5th.—Iambic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter.

"The joys | above | are un|-derstood And rell-ish'd on ly by the good."

Measure 6th.—Iambic of Three Feet, or Trimeter.

"Blue light nings singe | the waves, And thun der rends the rock."

Measure 7th.—Iambic of Two Feet, or Dimeter.

"Thĕir lōve | ănd āwe Supply | the law."

Measure 8th,—Iambic of One Foot, or Monometer.

"How bright, The light!"

Ors. 1.-Lines of fewer than seven syllables are seldom found, except in connexion with longer verses.

OBS. 2.—In iambic verse, the first foot is often varied, by introducing a

trochee; as, "Plānēts | and suns | run law|-less through | the sky."

Obs. 3.—By a syneresis of the two short syllables, or perhaps by mere substitution, an anapest may sometimes be employed for an iambus; or a stroches as dactyl, for a trochee: as, "O'er man |-y a fro |-zen, man |-y a fi |-ery Alp."

ORDER II.—TROCHAIC VERSE.

In Trochaic verse, the stress is laid on the odd syllables, and the even ones are short. Single-rhymed trochaic omits the final short syllable, that it may end with a long one. kind of verse is the same as iambic would be without the initial short syllable. Iambics and trochaics often occur in the same poem.

Measure 1st.—Trochaic of Eight Feet, or Octometer.

"Once up on a | midnight | dreary, | while I | pondered, | weak and | weary,

Over | many a | quaint and | curious | volume | of for -gotten | lore,

While I | nodded, | nearly | napping, | sudden|-ly there | came a | tapping,

As of | some one | gently | rapping, | rapping | at my | chamber | door."

Measure 2d.—Trochaic of Seven Feet, or Heptameter.

"Hasten, | Lord, to | rescue | me, and | set me | safe from | trouble;

Shame thou | those who | seek my | soul, re|-ward their | mischief | double."

Single Rhyme.

"Night and | morning | were at | meeting | over | Water | -loo;

Cocks had | sung their | earliest | greeting; | faint and | low they | crew."

Measure 3d.—Trochaic of Six Feet, or Hexameter.

"On ă | mountăin | stretch'd be | neath ă | hoary | willow, Laya | shepherd | swain, and | view'd the | rolling | billow."

Single Rhyme.

"Lonely | in the | forest, | subtle | from his | birth, Lived a | necro|-mancer, | wondrous | son of | earth."

Measure 4th.—Trochaic of Five Feet, or Pentameter.

"Vīrtŭe's | brīght'ning | rāy shăll | bēam för | ēvĕr."

Single Rhyme.
"Idlě | āftěr | dīnněr, | în his | chāir,

Sat a | farmer, | ruddy, | fat, and | fair."

Measure 5th.—Trochaic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter.

"Rōund ă | hōlÿ | cālm dĭf|-fūsǐng, Love of | peace and | lonely | musing."

Single Rhyme.

"Rēstless | mortals | toil for | naught, Bliss in | vain from | earth is | sought."

Measure 6th.—Trocheic of Three Feet, or Trimeter.

"When our | hearts are | mourning."

Single Rhyme.

"In the | days of | old, Stories | plainly | told."

Measure 7th.—Trochaic of Two Feet, or Dimeter.

"Fāncy | viēwing,
Joys en |-suing."

Single Rhyme.

"Tumult | cease, Sink to | peace."

Measure 8th.—Trochaic of One Foot, or Monometer.

" Changing," Ranging."

ORDER III.—ANAPESTIC VERSE.

In Anapestic verse the stress is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapestic line, may be an iambus.

Measure 1st.—Anapestic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter.

"At the close | of the day, | when the ham |-let is still.

And mor |-tals the sweets | of forget |-fulness prove."

Hypermeter with Double Rhyme.

"In a word, | so complete|-ly forestall'd | were the wish|-es, Even har|-mony struck | from the noise | of the dish|-es."

Hypermeter with Triple Rhyme.

"Lean Tom, | when I saw | him, last week, | on his horse | awry,

Threaten'd loud |-ly to turn | me to stone | with his sor |-cery."

Measure 2d.—Anapestic of Three Feet, or Trimeter.

"I am mon arch of all | I survey;

My right | there is none | to dispute."

Measure 3d.—Anapestic of Two Feet, or Dimeter.

"When I look | on my boys, They renew | all my joys."

Measure 4th.—Anapestic of One Foot, or Monometer.

"On the land Let me stand."

ORDER IV .- DACTYLIC VERSE.

In pure Dactylic verse, the stress is laid on the first syllable of each successive three; that is, on the first, the fourth, the seventh, the tenth syllable, &c. Full dactylic generally forms triple rhyme. When one of the final short syllables is omitted, the rhyme is double; when both, single. Dactylic with single rhyme is the same as anapestic would be without its initial short syllables. Dactylic measure is rather uncommon; and, when employed, is seldom perfectly regular.

Measure 1st.—Dactylic of Eight Feet, or Octometer.

"Nimröd the | hunter was | mighty in | hunting, and | famed as the | ruler of | cities of | yore;

ăs the | ruler of | cities of | yore;
Babel, and | Erech, and | Accad, and | Calneh, from | Shinar's fair | region his | name afar | bore."

Measure 2d.—Dactylic of Seven Feet, or Heptameter.

"Out of the | kingdom of | Christ shall be | gathered, by | angels o'er | Satan vic|-torious,

All that of | fendeth, that | lieth, that | faileth to | honour his | name ever | glorious."

Measure 8d.—Dactylic of Six Feet, or Hexameter.

"Time, thou art | ever in | motion, on | wheels of the | days, years, and | ages;

Restless as | waves of the | ocean, when | Eurus or | Boreas | rages."

Example without Rhyme.

"This is the | forest pri|-meval; but | where are the | hearts that be |-neath it

Leap'd like the | roe, when he | hears in the | woodland the | voice of the | huntsman?"

Measure 4th.—Dactylic of Five Feet, or Pentameter.

"Now thou dost | welcome me, | welcome me, | from the dark | sea,

Land of the | beautiful, | beautiful, | land of the | free."

Measure 5th.—Dactylic of Four Feet, or Tetrameter.

"Bōys will ăn|ticipăte, | lāvish, ănd | dīssipăte
All that your | būsy pate | hoarded with | care;
And, in their | foolishness, | passion, and | mulishness,

Charge you with | churlishness, | spurning your | pray'r."

Measure 6th.—Dactylic of Three Feet, or Trimeter.

"Ever sing | merrily, | merrily."

Measure 7th.—Dactylic of Two Feet, or Dimeter.

"Free from sa tiety, Care, and anx liety, Charms in va riety, Fall to his | share."

Measure 8th.—Dactylic of One Foot, or Monometer.

"Fēarfully, Tearfully."

CHAPTER V.—ORAL EXERCISES.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

PRAXIS IX .- PROSODICAL.

In the Ninth Praxis, are exemplified the several Figures of Orthography, of Etymology, of Syntax, and of Rhetoric, which the parser may name and define; and by it the pupil may also be exercised in relation to the principles of Punctuation, Utterance, and Versification.

LESSON I .- FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

MIMESIS AND ARCHAISM.

"Fery goot: I will make a prief of it in my note-book; and we will afterwards 'ork upon the cause with as great discreetly as we can."—Shak.

"Vat is you sing? I do not like dese toys. Pray you, go and vetch me in my closet un boitier verd; a box, a green-a

box. Do intend vat I speak? a green-a box."—Id.

"I ax'd you what you had to sell. I am fitting out a wessel for Wenice, loading her with warious keinds of provisions, and wittualling her for a long woyage; and I want several undred weight of weal, wenison, &c., with plenty of inyons and winegar, for the preservation of ealth."—Columbian Orator, p. 292.

"None [else are] so desperately evill, as they that may bee good and will not: or have beene good and are not."—Rev. John Rogers, 1620. "A Carpenter finds his work as hee left it, but a Minister shall find his sett back. You need preach continually."—Id.

"Here whilom ligg'd th' Esopus of his age,
But call'd by Fame, in soul ypricked deep."—Thomson.

"It was a fountain of Nepenthe rare, Whence, as Dan Homer sings, huge pleasaunce grew."—Id.

LESSON II.—FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

APHÆRESIS, PROSTHESIS, SYNCOPE, APOCOPE, PARAGOGE, DLÆRESIS, SYNÆRESIS, AND TMESIS.

Bend 'gainst the steepy hill thy breast,
Burst down like torrent from its crest."—Scott.
'Tis mine to teach th' inactive hand to reap
Kind nature's bounties, o'er the globe diffus'd.—Dyer.
Alas! alas! how impotently true
Th' aerial pencil forms the scene anew.—Cawthorne.

Here a deformed monster joy'd to won, Which on fell rancour ever was ybent.—Lloyd.

Withouten trump was proclamation made.—Thomson.

The gentle knight, who saw their rueful case, Let fall adown his silver beard some tears. 'Certes,' quoth he, 'it is not e'en in grace,

T' undo the past and eke your broken years.'—Id.

Vain tamp'ring has but foster'd his disease;
'Tis desp'rate, and he sleeps the sleep of death.—Cowper.

I have a pain upon my forehead here—

Why that's with watching; 'twill away again.—Shakspeare.

I'll to the woods, among the happier brutes;

Come, let's away; hark! the shrill horn resounds.—Smith.

What prayer and supplication soever be made.—Bible.

By the grace of God we have had our conversation in the world, and more abundantly to you ward.—Id.

LESSON III.—FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

FIGURE I .-- ELLIPSIS.

And now he faintly kens the bounding fawn,

And [-] villager [-] abroad at early toil.—Beattie.

The cottage curs at [---] early pilgrim bark.—Id.

Tis granted, and no plainer truth appears,

Our most important [-] are our earliest years.—Cowper.

To earn her aid, with fix'd and anxious eye, He looks on nature's [—] and on fortune's course; Too much in vain.—Akenside.

True dignity is his, whose tranquil mind Virtue has rais'd above the things [—] below;

Who, ev'ry hope and [—] fear to Heav'n resign'd,

Shrinks not, though Fortune aim her deadliest blow.—Beattie.

For longer in that paradise to dwell,

The law [-] I gave to nature, him forbids.—Milton.

So little mercy shows [--] who needs so much.—Cowper.

Bliss is the same [--] in subject, as [--] in king;

In [—] who obtain defence, and [—] who defend.—Pope.

Man made for kings! those optics are but dim

That tell you so—say rather, they [—] for him.—Cowper.

Man may dismiss compassion from his heart, But God will never [_____].—Id.

Mortals whose pleasures are their only care, First wish to be impos'd on, and then are [-].—Id. Vigour [--] from toil, from trouble patience grows.—Beattie. Where now the rill melodious, [—] pure, and cool, And meads, with life, and mirth, and beauty crown'd?—Id. How dead the vegetable kingdom lies! -]!-Thomson. How dumb the tuneful [-Self-love and Reason to one end aspire, Pain [—] their aversion, pleasure [—] their desire; But greedy that its object would devour, This [—] taste the honey, and not wound the flower.—Pope.

LESSON IV .-- FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

FIGURE IL-PLEONASM.

According to their deeds, accordingly he will repay; fury to his adversaries, recompense to his enemies.—Bible.

My head is filled with dew, and my locks with the drops of

the night.—Solomon's Song, v, 2.

Thou hast chastised me, and I was chastised, as a bullock unaccustomed to the yoke: turn thou me, and I shall be turned; for thou art the Lord my God.—Jer., xxxi, 18.

Consider the lilies of the field how they grow.—Matt., vi. 28. He that glorieth, let him glory in the Lord.—2 Cor., x, 17.

He too is witness, noblest of the train

That waits on man, the flight-performing horse.—Comper.

FIGURE III.—SYLLEPSIS.

'Thou art Simon the son of Jona: thou shalt be called Cephas; which is, by interpretation, a stone.—John, i, 42.

Thus saith the Lord of hosts: 'Behold I will break the bow

of Elam, the chief of their might.'—Jer., xlix, 35.

Behold I lay in Zion a stumbling-stone and rock of offence; and whosoever believeth on him shall not be ashamed.—Rom., ix, 33.

Thus Conscience pleads her cause within the breast, Though long rebell'd against, not yet suppress'd.—Cowper.

Knowledge is proud that he has learned so much; Wisdom is humble that he knows no more.—Id.

For those the race of Israel oft forsook Their living strength, and unfrequented left His righteous altar, bowing lowly down To bestial gods.—Milton.

LESSON V .-- FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

FIGURE IV .- ENALLAGE.

Let me tell you, Cassius, you yourself
Are much condemned to have an itching palm,
To sell and mart your offices for gold.—Shakspeare.
Come, Philomelus; let us instant go,
O'erturn his bow'rs, and lay his castle low.—Thomson.
Then palaces shall rise; the joyful son
Shall finish what the short-lived sire begun.—Pope.
Such was that temple built by Solomon,
Than whom none richer reign'd o'er Israel.—G. Brown.
He spoke: with fatal eagerness we burn,
And quit the shores, undestin'd to return.—Day.
Still as he pass'd, the nations he sublimes.—Thomson.
Sometimes, with early morn, he mounted gay.—Id.

FIGURE V .--- HYPERBATON.

Such resting found the sole of unblest feet.—Milton.
Yet, though successless, will the toil delight.—Thomson.
Where, 'midst the changeful scen'ry ever new,
Fancy a thousand wondrous forms descries.—Beattie.
Yet so much bounty is in God, such grace,
That who advance his glory, not their own,
Them he himself to glory will advance.—Milton.
But apt the mind or fancy is to rove
Uncheck'd, and of her roving is no end.—Id.
No quick reply to dubious questions make;
Suspense and caution still prevent mistake.—Denham.

LESSON VI.—FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

FIGURE I .- SIMILE.

Human greatness is short and transitory, as the odour of incense in the fire.—Dr. Johnson.

Terrestrial happiness is of short continuance: the brightness of the flame is wasting its fuel, the fragrant flower is passing away in its own odours.—Id.

Thy nod is as the earthquake that shakes the mountains; and thy smile, as the dawn of the vernal day.—Id.

Plants rais'd with tenderness are seldom strong; Man's coltish disposition asks the thong; And without discipline, the fav'rite child, Like a neglected forester, runs wild.—Couper.

FIGURE IL .- METAPHOR.

Cathmon, thy name is a pleasant gale.—Ossian.

Rolled into himself he flew, wide on the bosom of winds. The old oak felt his departure, and shook its whistling head.—Id.

Carazan gradually lost the inclination to do good, as he acquired the power; and as the hand of time scattered snow upon his head, the freezing influence extended to his bosom.—
Hawkesworth.

The sun grew weary of gilding the palaces of Morad; the clouds of sorrow gathered round his head; and the tempest of hatred roared about his dwelling.—Dr. Johnson.

The tree of knowledge, blasted by disputes, Produces sapless leaves in stead of fruits.—Denham.

LESSON VII.—FIGURES OF RHETORIC. FIGURE III.—ALLEGORY.

"But what think ye?—A certain man had two sons; and he came to the first, and said, 'Son, go work to-day in my vine-yard.' He answered and said, 'I will not:' but afterward he repented, and went. And he came to the second, and said likewise. And he answered and said, 'I go, sir:' and went not. Whether of them twain did the will of his father?" They say unto him, "The first."—Matt., xxi, 28.

FIGURE IV .--- METONYMY.

Swifter than a whirlwind, flies the leaden death.—Hervey.

'Be all the dead forgot,' said Foldath's bursting wrath. 'Did not I fail in the field ?'—Ossian.

Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke.—Gray.

Firm in his love, resistless in his hate, His arm is conquest, and his frown is fate.—Day.

At length the world, renew'd by calm repose, Was strong for toil; the dappled morn arose.—Parnell.

What modes of sight betwixt each wide extreme, The mole's dim curtain and the lynx's beam! Of hearing, from the life that fills the flood,

To that which warbles through the vernal wood!—Pope.

FIGURE V .- SYNECDOCHE.

'Twas then his threshold first receiv'd a guest.—Parnell. For yet by swains alone the world he knew, Whose feet came wand'ring o'er the nightly dew.—Id.

Flush'd by the spirit of the genial year,
Now from the virgin's cheek a fresher bloom
Shoots, less and less, the live carnation round.—Thomson.

LESSON VIII.-FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

FIGURE VI .- HYPERBOLE.

I saw their chief, tall as a rock of ice; his spear, the blasted fir; his shield, the rising moon; he sat on the shore, like a cloud of mist on the hill.—Ossian.

At which the universal host up sent
A shout that tore Hell's concave, and beyond
Frighted the reign of Chaos and old Night.—Milton.
Will all great Neptune's ocean wash this blood
Clean from my hand? No; this my hand will rather
The multitudinous seas incarnadine,
Making the green one red.—Shakspeare.
Endless tears flow down in streams.—Swift.

FIGURE VII .-- VISION.

How mighty is their defence who reverently trust in the arm of God! How powerfully do they contend who fight with lawful weapons! Hark! 'Tis the voice of eloquence, pouring forth the living energies of the soul; pleading, with generous indignation, the cause of injured humanity against lawless might, and reading the awful destiny that awaits the oppressor!—I see the stern countenance of despotism overawed! I see the eye fallen that kindled the elements of war! I see the brow relaxed that scowled defiance at hostile thousands! I see the knees tremble that trod with firmness the embattled field! Fear has entered that heart which ambition had betrayed into violence! The tyrant feels himself a man, and subject to the weakness of humanity!—Behold! and tell me, is that power contemptible which can thus find access to the sternest hearts? —G. Brown.

LESSON IX. - FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

FIGURE VIII .--- APOSTROPHE. *

Yet still they breathe destruction, still go on Inhumanly ingenious to find out
New pains for life, new terrors for the grave;
Artificers of death! Still monarchs dream
Of universal empire growing up
From universal ruin. Blast the design,
Great God of Hosts! nor let thy creatures fall
Unpitied victims at Ambition's shrine.—Porteus.

FIGURE IX. -- PERSONIFICATION.

Hail, sacred *Polity*, by *Freedom* rear'd!
Hail, sacred *Freedom*, when by *Law* restrain'd!
Without you, what were man? A grov'ling herd,
In darkness, wretchedness, and want enchain'd.—*Beattie*.
Let cheerful *Mem'ry*, from her purest cells,
Lead forth a goodly train of *Virtues* fair,
Cherish'd in early youth, now paying back

FIGURE X .--- EROTESIS.

With tenfold usury the pious care.—Porteus.

He that chastiseth the heathen, shall not be correct? he that teacheth man knowledge, shall not be know?—Psal., xciv, 10. Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots? then may ye also do good, that are accustomed to do evil.—Jeremiah, xiii, 23.

FIGURE XI.--ECPHONESIS.

O that my head were waters, and mine eyes a fountain of tears, that I might weep day and night for the slain of the daughter of my people! O that I had in the wilderness a lodging place of way-faring men, that I might leave my people, and go from them!—Jeremiah, ix, 1.

LESSON X .-- FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

FIGURE XII. -- ANTITHESIS.

On this side, modesty is engaged; on that, impudence: on this, chastity; on that, lewdness: on this, integrity; on that, fraud: on this, piety; on that, profaneness: on this, constancy; on that, fickleness: on this, honour; on that, baseness: on this, moderation; on that, unbridled passion.—*Cicero*.

She, from the rending earth, and bursting skies, Saw gods descend, and fiends infernal rise; Here fix'd the dreadful, there the blest abodes; Fear made her devils, and weak hope her gods.—Pope.

FIGURE XIII.-CLIMAX.

Virtuous actions are necessarily approved by the awakened conscience; and when they are approved, they are commended to practice; and when they are practised, they become easy; and when they become easy, they afford pleasure; and when they afford pleasure, they are done frequently; and when they are done frequently, they are confirmed by habit: and confirmed habit is a kind of second nature.

FIGURE XIV .--- IRONY.

And it came to pass at noon, that Elijah mocked them, and said. 'Cry aloud; for he is a god: either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is in [on] a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked !'-1 Kings, xviii, 27.

> Some lead a life unblamable and just, Their own dear virtue their unshaken trust; They never sin—or if (as all offend) Some trivial slips their daily walk attend, The poor are near at hand, the charge is small, A slight gratuity atones for all.—Cowper.

CHAPTER VI.—EXAMINATION.

QUESTIONS ON PROSODY.

LESSON I .- PUNCTUATION.

Of what does Prosody treat?

What is Punctuation !

What are the principal points, or marks?
What pauses are denoted by the first four points?
What pauses are required by the other four?

What is the general use of the comma?

What is the general use of the comma?

How many rules for the comma are there? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of simple sentences?—Rule 2d of simple members?—Rule

3d of more than two words?—Rule 4th of only two words?—Rule 5th of
words in pairs?—Rule 6th of words put absolute?—Rule 7th of words in apposition?—Rule 8th of adjectives?—Rule 9th of finite verbs?—Rule 1th of
infinitions?—Rule 11th of participles?—Rule 15th of adverbs?—Rule 18th
of conjunctions?—Rule 14th of prepositions?—Rule 15th of interjections?—
Rule 16th of words repeated?—Rule 17th of dependent quotations?

LESSON II. - PUNCTUATION.

How many and what exceptions are there to Rule 1st for the comma?—to Rule 2d?—to Rule 3d?—to Rule 4th?—to Rule 5th?—to Rule 5th?—to Rule 7th?—to Rule 1th?—to Rule 1th?—to Rule 1th?—to Rule 1sth?—to 16th !—to Rule 17th !

When are different words said to be in the same construction !

LESSONS III .- PUNCTUATION.

What is the general use of the semicolon?

What as the general use of the semicolon? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of compound members?—Rule 2d of simple members?—
Rule 3d of words in apposition?

What is the general use of the colon?

How many rules are there for the colon? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of additional remarks?—Rule 2d of greater pauses?—

Rule 3d of independent quotations?

What is the general use of the period?

How many rules are there for the period? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of distinct sentences?—Rule 2d of allied sentences?—Rule 3d of abbreviations?

LESSON IV .- PUNCTUATION.

What is the use of the dash?

How many rules are there for the dash! and what are their heads!

what says Rule 1st of abrupt pauses?—Rule 2d of emphatic pauses?—Rule 2d of faulty dashes?
What says Rule 1st of abrupt pauses?—Rule 2d of emphatic pauses?—Rule 2d of faulty dashes?
What is the use of the eroteme, or note of interrogation?
How many rules are there for it? and what are their heads?
What says Rule 1st of questions direct?—Rule 2d of questions united?—Rule 3d of questions indirect?
What is the use of the contemplate or note of analysis.

What is the use of the ecphoneme, or note of exclamation? How many rules are there for it? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of interjections?—Rule 2d of invocations?—Rule 3d of exclamatory questions?

LESSON V .-- PUNCTUATION.

What is the use of the curves, or marks of parenthesis?

How many rules are there for them? and what are their heads?

What says Rule 1st of the parenthesis?—Rule 2d of included points? What is said about other marks?

What is the use of the apostrophe !—of the hyphen !—of the disresis !—of the acute accent !—of the grave accent !—of the circumflex !—of the brace !—of the macron !—of the ellipsis !—of the caret !—of the brace !—of the section?—of the paragraph?—of the quotation points?—of the crotchets?—of the index?—of the asterisk, the obelisk, the double dagger, and the parallels?—of the asterism?—of the cedilla?

[Having correctly answered the foregoing questions, the pupil should be taught to apply what he has learned; and, for this purpose, he may be required to read the preface to this volume, or a portion of any other accurately pointed book, and to assign a reason for every mark he finds.]

LESSON VI.--UTTERANCE.

What is Utterance? and what does it include?

What is pronunciation !—What does pronunciation require !

What are the just powers of the letters? What is accent?—Is every word accented?

Can a word have more than one accent?

What four things distinguish the elegant speaker?
What is elecution?—What does elecution require?—What is emphasis?

What he electron?—What its said of their duration?—What is called the falling inflection?—What is called the falling inflection?—What is called the falling inflection?—How are these inflections exemplified?—How are they used in asking questions?
What are tones? and why do they deserve particular attention?

LESSON VII .- FIGURES.

What is a Figure in grammar?—How many kinds of figures are there? What is a figure of orthography?—Name the figures of this kind. What is mimesis?—What is an archaism?

What is a figure of etymology?

How many and what are the figures of etymology?
What is aphæresis?—prosthesis?—syncope?—apocope?—paragoge?—diæresis?—synæresis?—tmesis?

sis is syneresis it—thesis?
What is a figure of syntax?—How many and what are the figures of syntax?
What is ellipsis in grammar? Are sentences often elliptical?
How can there be an ellipsis of the article?—the noun?—the adjective?—the pronoun?—the verb?—the participle?—the adverb?—the conjunction!—the preposition?—the interjection?—a phrase or clause?
What is pleonasm?—and when is this figure allowable?
What is syllepsis?—enallage?—hyperbaton?—what is said of hyberbaton?

LESSON VIII .- FIGURES.

What is a figure of rhetoric !-- What name have some such figures !

Do figures of rhetoric often occur !-- On what are they founded ! How many and what are the principal figures of rhetoric?

What is a simile?—a metaphor?—an allegory?—a metonymy?—syneedoche?—hyperbole?—vision?—aspostrophe?—personification?—erotesis?—eophonesis?—antithesis?—climax?—irony?

LESSON IX. - VERSIFICATION.

What is Versification?—What is the quantity of a syllable? How is quantity denominated?—How is it said to be proportioned? On what does quantity depend? and what sounds are the most easily lengthened? What words are variable in quantity? and what syllables are fixed? What is rhyme?—What is blank verse? Of what does a *line* of poetry consist?—Of what does a *foot* consist? What are the principal English feet? What is an iambus?—a trochee!—an anapest?—a dactyl? How many kinds of verse have we? What is scanning, or scansion?

LESSON X .- VERSIFICATION.

What syllables are accented in an iambic line? What are the several measures of iambic verse? What syllables are accented in a trochaic line? What are the several measures of trochaic verse? What syllables are accented in an anapestic line? What are the several measures of anapestic verse? What syllables are accented in a dactylic line? What are the several measures of dactylic verse?

[Now parse the ten lessons of the *Ninth Provis*; explaining every thing of which the teacher may demand an explanation.]

CHAPTER VII.—FOR WRITING.

EXERCISES IN PROSODY.

[37] [When the pupil can readily answer all the questions on Prosody, and apply the rules of punctuation to any composition in which the points are rightly inserted, he should cortic out the following exercises, supplying what is required.]

EXERCISE I.—PUNCTUATION.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the COMMA where it is requisite.

Examples under Rule 1.

The dogmatist's assurance is paramount to argument. The whole course of his argumentation comes to nothing. The fieldmouse builds her garner under ground. Exc. The first principles of almost all sciences are few. What he gave me to publish was but a small part. To remain insensible to such provocation is apathy. Minds ashamed of poverty would be proud of affluence.

Under Rule 2.

I was eyes to the blind and feet was I to the lame. They are gone but the remembrance of them is sweet. He has passed it is likely through varieties of fortune. The mind though free has a governor within itself. They I doubt not oppose the bill on public principles. Be silent be grateful and adore. He is an adept in language who always speaks the truth. The race is not to the swift nor the battle to the strong. Exc. 1. He that has far to go should not hurry. Hobbes believed the eternal truths which he opposed. Feeble are all pleasures in which the heart has no share. Exc. 2. A good name is better than precious ointment. Thinkst thou that duty shall have dread to speak? The spleen is seldom felt were Flora reigns.

Under Rule 3.

The city army court espouse my cause.

Wars pestilences and diseases are terrible instructors.

Walk daily in a pleasant airy and umbrageous garden.

Wit spirits faculties but make it worse.

Men wives and children stare cry out and run.

Under Rule 4.

Hope and fear are essentials in religion.

Praise and adoration are perfective of our souls.

We know bodies and their properties most perfectly.

Satisfy yourselves with what is rational and attainable.

Exc 1. God will rather look to the inward motions of the mind than to the outward form of the body.

Gentleness is unassuming in opinion and temperate in zeal.

Exc. 2. He has experienced prosperity and adversity.

All sin essentially is and must be mortal.

Exc. 3. One person is chosen chairman or moderator.

Duration or time is measured by motion.

The governor or viceroy is chosen annually.

Exc. 4. Reflection reason still the ties improve.

His neat plain parlour wants our modern style.

Under Rule 5.

Linguised and rejected consulted and deliberated

I inquired and rejected consulted and deliberated. Seed-time and harvest cold and heat summer and winter day and night shall not cease.

EXERCISE IL—PUNCTUATION.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the COMMA where it is requisite.

Under Rule 6.

The night being dark they did not proceed.

There being no other coach we had no alternative.
Remember my son that human life is the journey of a day.
All circumstances considered it seems right.
He that overcometh to him will I give power.
Your land strangers devour it in your presence.
Ah sinful nation a people laden with iniquity!

With heads declin'd ye cedars homage pay; Be smooth ye rocks ye rapid floods give way!

Under Rule 7.

Now Philomel sweet songstress charms the night. Tis chanticleer the shepherd's clock announcing day. The evening star love's harbinger appears. The queen of night fair Dian smiles serene. There is yet one man Micaiah the son of Imlah. Our whole company man by man ventured down. As a work of wit the Dunciad has few equals.

In the same temple the resounding wood All vocal beings hymned their equal God.

Exc. 1. The last king of Rome was Tarquinius Superbus. Bossuet highly eulogizes Maria Theresa of Austria.

Exc. 2. For he went and dwelt by the brook Cherith. Remember the example of the patriarch Joseph.

Exc. 3. I wisdom dwell with prudence.

Ye fools be ye of an understanding heart.

I tell you that which you yourselves do know.

Exc. 4. I crown thee king of intimate delights.

I count the world a stranger for thy sake.

And this makes friends such miracles below.

God has pronounced it death to taste that tree.

Under Rule 8.

Deaf with the noise I took my hasty flight. Him piteous of his youth soft disengage. I played a while obedient to the fair. Love free as air spreads his light wings and flies.

Grace makes the slave a freeman.

Then active still and unconfined his mind Explores the vast extent of ages past. But there is yet a liberty unsung By poets and by senators unpraised.

Exc. I will marry a wife beautiful as the Houries. He was a man able to speak upon doubtful questions. These are the persons anxious for the change. Are they men worthy of confidence and support?

Under Rule 9.

Poverty wants some things—avarice all things. Honesty has one face—flattery two.

One king is too soft and easy—an other too fiery.

Mankind's esteem they court—and he his own:

Theirs the wild chase of false felicities;

His the compos'd possession of the true.

EXERCISE III.—PUNCTUATION.

Copy the following sentences, and insert the COMMA where it is requisite.

Under Rule 10.

My desire is to live in peace.

The great difficulty was to compel them to pay their debts. To strengthen our virtue God bids us trust in him. I made no bargain with you to live always drudging. To sum up all her tongue confessed the shrew.

To proceed my own adventure was still more laughable.

We come not with design of w steful prey
To drive the country force the wains away.

Under Rule 11.

Having given this answer he departed.

Some sunk to beasts find pleasure end in pain.

Eased of her load subjection grows more light.

Death still draws nearer never seeming near.

He lies full low gored with wounds and weltering in his blood.

Kind is fell Lucifer compared to thee.

Man considered in himself is helpless and wretched.

Like scattered down by howling Eurus blown.

He with wide nostrils snorting skims the wave.

Youth is properly speaking introductory to manhood.

Exc. He kept his eye fixed on the country before him.

They have their part assigned them to act.

Years will not repair the injuries done by him.

Under Rule 12.

Yes we both were philosophers. However providence saw fit to cross our design. Besides I know that the eye of the public is upon me. The fact certainly is much otherwise. For nothing surely can be more inconsistent.

Under Rule 18.

For in such retirement the soul is strengthened.

It engages our desires; and in some degree satisfies them. But of every Christian virtue piety is an essential part. The English verb is variable; as love lovest loves.

Under Rule 14.

In a word charity is the soul of social life. By the bowstring I can repress violence and fraud. Some by being too artful forfeit the reputation of probity. With regard to morality I was not indifferent.

Under Rule 15.

Lo earth receives him from the bending skies! Behold I am against thee O inhabitant of the valley!

Under Rule 16.

I would never consent never never never. His teeth did chatter chatter chatter still. Come come come come—to bed to bed to bed.

Under Rule 17.

He cried 'Cause every man to go out from me.'
'Almet' said he 'remember what thou hast seen.'
I answered 'Mock not thy servant who is but a worm before thee.'

EXERCISE IV.—PUNCTUATION.

1. Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma and the SEMICOLON where they are requisite.

Under Rule 1.

'Man is weak' answered his companion 'knowledge is more than equivalent to force.'

To judge rightly of the present we must oppose it to the past for all judgment is comparative and of the future nothing can be known.

'Content is natural wealth' says Socrates to which I shall add 'luxury is artificial poverty.'

Converse and love mankind might strongly draw When love was liberty and nature law.

Under Rule 2.

Be wise to-day 'tis madness to defer.

The present all their care the future his.

Wit makes an enterpriser sense a man.

Ask thought for joy grow rich and hoard within.

Song soothes our pains and age has pains to soothe.

Here an enemy encounters there a rival supplants him.

Our answer to their reasons is No to their scoffs nothing.

Under Rule 3.

In Latin there are six cases namely the nominative the genitive the dative the accusative the vocative and the ablative.

Most English nouns form the plural by adding s as boy boys

nation nations king kings bay bays.

Bodies are such as are endued with a vegetable soul as plants a sensitive soul as animals or a rational soul as the body of man.

2. Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma, the semicolon, and the COLON where they are requisite.

Under Rule 1.

Death wounds to cure we fall we rise we reign. Bliss!—there is none but unprecarious bliss That is the gem sell all and purchase that. Beware of usurpation God is the judge of all.

Under Rule 2.

I have the world here before me I will review it at leisure

surely happiness is somewhere to be found.

A melancholy enthusiast courts persecution and when he cannot obtain it afflicts himself with absurd penances but the holiness of St. Paul consisted in the simplicity of a pious life.

> Observe his awful portrait and admire Nor stop at wonder imitate and live.

Under Rule 3.

Such is our Lord's injunction "Watch and pray."

He died praying for his persecutors "Father forgive them they know not what they do."

On his cane was inscribed this motto "Festina lente."

 Copy the following sentences, and insert the comma, the semicolon, the colon, and the PERIOD where they are requisite.

Under Rule 1.

Then appeared the sea and the dry land the mountains rose and the rivers flowed the sun and moon began their course in the skies herbs and plants clothed the ground the air the earth and the waters were stored with their respective inhabitants at last man was made in the image of God

In general those parents have most reverence who most deserve

it for he that lives well cannot be despised

Under Rule 2.

Civil accomplishments frequently give rise to fame but a dis-

tinction is to be made between fame and true honour the statesman the orator or the poet may be famous while yet the man himself is far from being honoured

Under Rule 3.

Glass was invented in Eng by Benalt a monk A D 664 The Roman Era U C commenced A C 1753 years Here is the Literary Life of S T Coleridge Esq

EXERCISE V.—PUNCTUATION.

1. Copy the following sentences, and insert the DASH, and such other points as are necessary.

Under Rule 1.

- You say famous very often and I don't know exactly what it means a famous uniform famous doings What does famous mean
- O why famous means Now don't you know what famous means It means It is a word that people say It is the fashion to say it It means it means famous.

Under Rule 2.

But this life is not all there is there is full surely an other state abiding us And if there is what is thy prospect O remorseless obdurate Thou shalt hear it would be thy wisdom to think thou now hearest the sound of that trumpet which shall awake the dead Return O yet return to the Father of mercies and live

The future pleases Why The present pains But that's a secret yes which all men know

2. Copy the following sentences, and insert the NOTE OF INTER-BOGATION, and such other points as are necessary.

Under Rule 1.

Does nature bear a tyrant's breast Is she the friend of stern control Wears she the despot's purple vest Or fetters she the free-born soul

Why should a man whose blood is warm within Sit like his grandsire cut in alabaster

Who art thou courteous stranger and from whence Why roam thy steps to this abandon'd dale.

Under Rule 2.

Who bid the stork Columbus-like explore Heavens not his own and worlds unknown before Who calls the council states the certain day Who forms the phalanx and who points the way

Under Rule 3.

Ask of thy mother Earth why oaks are made Taller and stronger than the weeds they shade They asked me who I was and whither I was going

3. Copy the following sentences, and insert the NOTE OF EXCLA-MATION, and such other points as are necessary.

Under Rule 1.

Alas how is that rugged heart forlorn Behold the victor vanquish'd by the worm Bliss sublunary bliss proud words and vain

Under Rule 2.

O Popular Applause what heart of man Is proof against thy sweet seducing charms More than thy balm O Gilead heals the wound

Under Rule 3.

How often have I loitered o'er thy green Where humble happiness endear'd each scene What black despair what horror fills his heart

4. Copy the following sentences, and insert the MARKS OF PAR-ENTHESIS, and such other points as are necessary.

Under Rule 1.

And all the question wrangle e'er so long Is only this If God has placed him wrong And who what God foretells who speaks in things Still louder than in words shall dare deny

Under Rule 2.

Say was it virtue mere though Heav'n ne'er gave Lamented Digby sunk thee to the grave Where is that thrift that avarice of time O glorious avarice thought of death inspires And oh the last last what can words express Thought reach the last last silence of a friend

EXERCISE VI.—PUNCTUATION.

Copy the following PROMISCUOUS sentences, and insert the points which they require.

As one of them opened his sack he espied his money They cried out the more exceedingly Crucify him The soldiers' counsel was to kill the prisoners Great injury these vermin mice and rats do in the field It is my son's coat an evil beast hath devoured him Peace of all wordly blessings is the most valuable By this time the very foundation was removed The only words he uttered were I am a Roman citizen Some distress either felt or feared gnaws like a worm How then must I determine Have I no interest If I have not I am stationed here to no purpose Harris In the fire the destruction was so swift sudden vast and miserable as to have no parallel in story Dionysius the tyrant of Sicily was far from being happy I ask now Verres what thou hast to advance Excess began and sloth sustains the trade Fame can never reconcile a man to a death bed They that sail on the sea tell of the danger Be doers of the word and not hearers only The storms of wint'ry time will quickly pass Here hope that smiling angel stands Disguise I see thou art a wickedness There are no tricks in plain and simple faith. True love strikes root in reason passion's foe Two gods divide them all Pleasure and Gain I am satisfied My son has done his duty Remember Almet the vision which thou hast seen I beheld an enclosure beautiful as the gardens of paradise The knowledge which I have received I will communicate But I am not yet happy and therefore I despair Wretched mortals said I to what purpose are you busy Bad as the world is respect is always paid to virtue In a word he views men in the clear sunshine of charity This being the case I am astonished and amazed These men approached him and saluted him king Excellent and obliging sages these undoub edly Yet at the same time the man himself un ergoes a change One constant effect of idleness is to nour h the passions You ho coes regard nothing but glory Take care lest while you strive to read the top you fall Proud and presumptuous they can brook no opposition

Nay some awe of religion may still subsist Then said he Lo I come to do thy will O God As for me behold I am in your hand Now I Paul myself beseech you He who lives always in public cannot live to his own soul whereas he who retires remains calm Therefore behold I even I will utterly forget you This text speaks only of those to whom it speaks Yea he warmeth himself and saith Aha I am warm King Agrippa believest thou the prophets

EXERCISE VII.—PUNCTUATION.

Copy the following PROMISCUOUS sentences, and insert the points which they require.

To whom can riches give repute or trust Content or pleasure but the good and just Pope To him no high no low no great no small He fills he bounds connects and equals all Id Reason's whole pleasure all the joys of sense Lie in three words health peace and competence Id Not so for once indulg'd they sweep the main Deaf to the call or hearing hear in vain Anon Say will the falcon stooping from above Smit with her varying plumage spare the dove Pope Throw Egypt's by and offer in its stead Offer the crown on Bernice's head Id Falsely luxurious will not man awake And springing from the bed of sloth enjoy The cool the fragrant and the silent hour Thomson Yet thus it is nor otherwise can be So far from aught romantic what I sing Young Thyself first know then love a self there is Of virtue fond that kindles at her charms Id How far that little candle throws his beams So shines a good deed in a naughty world Shakspeare You have too muc respect upon the world They lose it that a buy it with much care Id How many things l r season season'd are To their right praise and true perfection Id Canst thou descend firm converse with the skies And seize thy brother throat for what a clod Young

In two short precepts all your business lies Would you be great be virtuous and be wise Denham But sometimes virtue starves while vice is fed What then is the reward of virtue bread Pope A life all turbulence and noise may seem To him that leads it wise and to be prais'd But wisdom is a pearl with most success Sought in still waters and beneath clear skies Couper All but the swellings of the softened heart That waken not disturb the tranquil mind Thomson Inspiring God who boundless spirit all And unremitting energy pervades Adjusts sustains and agitates the whole Id Ye ladies for indiff'rent in your cause I should deserve to forfeit all applause Whatever shocks or gives the least offence To virtue delicacy truth or sense Try the criterion 'tis a faithful guide Nor has nor can have Scripture on its side Comper

EXERCISE VIII.—SCANNING.

Divide the following verses into the feet which compose them, and distinguish by marks the long and the short syllables.

DEITY.

Alone thou sitst above the everlasting hills,
And all immensity of space thy presence fills:
For thou alone art God;—as God thy saints adore thee;
Jehovah is thy name;—they have no gods before thee.—G. B.

HEALTH.

Up the dewy mountain, Health is bounding lightly;
On her brows a garland, twin'd with richest posies:
Gay is she, elate with hope, and smiling sprightly;
Redder is her cheek, and sweeter, than the rose is.—G. B.

IMPENITENCE.

The impenitent sinner whom mercy empowers,
Dishonours that goodness which seeks to restore;
As the sands of the desert are water'd by showers,
Yet barren and fruitless remain as before.—G. Brown.

PIETY.

Holy and pure are the pleasures of piety,
Drawn from the fountain of mercy and love;
Endless, exhaustless, exempt from satiety,
Rising unearthly, and soaring above.—G. Brown.

A SIMILE.

The bolt that strikes the tow'ring cedar dead, Oft passes harmless o'er the hazel's head.—G. Brown.

AN OTHER.

"Yet to the general's voice they soon obey'd Innumerable. As when the potent rod Of Amram's son, in Egypt's evil day, Wav'd round the coast, up call'd a pitchy cloud Of locusts, warping on the eastern wind, That o'er the realm of impious Pharaoh hung Like night, and darken'd all the land of Nile."—Milton.

ELEGIAC STANZA.

Thy name is dear—'tis virtue balm'd in love; Yet e'en thy name a pensive sadness brings. Ah! we the day, our hearts were doom'd to prove, That fondest love but points affliction's stings!—G. Brown.

CUPID.

Zephyrs, moving bland, and breathing fragrant
With the sweetest odours of the spring,
O'er the winged boy, a thoughtless vagrant,
Slumb'ring in the grove, their perfumes fling.—G. Brown.

DIVINE POWER.

When the winds o'er Gennesaret roar'd,
And the billows tremendously rose,
The Saviour but utter'd the word,
They were hush'd to the calmest repose.—G. Brown.

INVITATION.

Come from the mount of the leopard, spouse, Come from the den of the lion; Come to the tent of thy shepherd, spouse, Come to the mountain of Zion.—G. Brown.

ADMONITION.

In the days of thy youth,
Remember thy God:
O! forsake not his truth,
Incur not his rod.—G. Brown.

COMMENDATION.

Constant and duteous,

Meek as the dove,

How art thou beauteous,

Daughter of love!—G. Brown.

EDWIN, AN ODE.

I. STROPHE.

Led by the pow'r of song, and nature's love, Which raise the soul all vulgar themes above,

The mountain grove
Would Edwin rove,
In pensive mood, alone;
And seek the woody dell,
Where noontide shadows fell,
Cheering,

Veering,

Mov'd by the zephyr's swell.

Here nurs'd he thoughts to genius only known,

When nought was heard around But sooth'd the rest profound

Of rural beauty on her mountain throne.

Nor less he lov'd (rude nature's child)

The elemental conflict wild;

When, fold on fold, above was pil'd The watery swathe, careering on the wind.

Such scenes he saw

With solemn awe, As in the presence of th' Eternal Mind.

Fix'd he gaz'd,

Tranc'd and rais'd, Sublimely rapt in awful pleasure undefin'd.

IL ANTISTROPHE.

Reckless of dainty joys, he finds delight Where feebler souls but tremble with affright.

Lo! now, within the deep ravine,

A black impending cloud

Infolds him in its shroud,

And dark and darker glooms the scene.

Through the thicket streaming,

Lightnings now are gleaming;

Thunders rolling dread,

Shake the mountain's head; Nature's war

Echoes far,

O'er ether borne.

That flash The ash

Has scath'd and torn!

Now it rages;
Oaks of ages,
Writhing in the furious blast,
Wide their leafy honours cast;
Their gnarled arms do force to force oppose:
Deep rooted in the crevic'd rock,
The sturdy trunk sustains the shock,
Like dauntless hero firm against assailing foes,

III. EPODE.

'O Thou who sits above these vapours dense,
And rul'st the storm by thine omnipotence!

Making the collied cloud thy car,
Coursing the winds, thou rid'st afar,
Thy blessings to dispense.
The early and the latter rain,
Which fertilize the dusty plain,
Thy bounteous goodness pours.
Dumb be the atheist tongue abhorr'd!
All nature owns thee, sovereign Lord!
And works thy gracious will;
At thy command the tempest roars,

At thy command is still.

Thy mercy o'er this scene sublime presides;

'Tis mercy forms the veil that hides

The ardent solar beam;
While, from the volley'd breast of heaven,
Transient gleams of dazzling light,
Flashing on the balls of sight,

Make darkness darker seem.

Thou mov'st the quick and sulph'rous leven—

The tempest-driven Cloud is riven; And the thirsty mountain-side

Drinks gladly of the gushing tide.'
So breath'd young Edwin, when the summer shower
From out that dark o'erchamb'ring cloud,

With lightning flash and thunder loud,
Burst in wild grandeur o'er his solitary bower.—G. Brown.

KEY

TO THE

EXAMPLES OF FALSE CONSTRUCTION,

DESIGNED FOR ORAL EXERCISES,

UNDER

THE RULES OF SYNTAX AND THE NOTES.

The examples of False Syntax here explained, should be corrected orally by the pupil, according to the formules given under the rules; and the following corrections may afterwards be used as examples for parsing, if necessary.]

UNDER RULE I .-- ARTICLES.

Under Note 1 .- An or A.

This is a hard saying. An humble heart shall find favour. Passing from an earthly to a heavenly diadem. Few have the happiness of living with such a one. She evinced a uniform adherence to the truth. An hospital is an asylum for the sick. This is truly a wonderful invention. He is a younger man than we supposed. A humorsome child is never long pleased. A careless man is unfit for an hostler.

Under Note 2.—Nouns Connected.

Avoid rude sports: an eye is soon lost, or a bone broken. As the drop of the bucket, and th dust of the balance. Not a word was uttered, nor a sign given. I despise not the doer, but th deed.

Under Note 8.—Adjectives Connected.

What is the difference between the old and the new method? The sixth and the tenth have a close resemblance. Is Paris on the right hand, or the left? Does Peru join the Atlantic, or the Pacific ocean? He was influenced both by a just and a generous principle. The book was read by the old and the young. I have both the large and the small grammar. Are both the north and the south line measured? Are the north line and the south lines measured? Are both the north and the south lines measured? Are both the north lines and the south measured?

Under Note 4 .- Adjectives Connected.

Is the north and south line measured?

Are the two north and south lines both measured?

A great and good man looks beyond time.

They made but a weak and ineffectual resistance.
The Allegany and Monongahela rivers form the Ohio.
I rejoice that there is an other and better world.
Were God to raise up an other such man as Moses.
The light and worthless kernels will float.

Under Note 5 .- Articles not Requisits.

Cleon was an other sort of men.
There is a species of animal called seal.
Let us wait in patience and quietness.
The contemplative mind delights in silence.
Arithmetic is a branch of mathematics.
You will never have an other such chance.
I expected some such answer.
And I persecuted this way unto death.

Under Note 6 .- Of Titles and Names.

He is entitled to the appellation of gentleman.
Cromwell assumed the title of Protector.
Her father is honoured with the title of Earl.
The chief magistrate is styled President.
The highest title in the state is that of Governor.
For oak, pine, and ash, were names of whole classes of objects.

Under Note 7.—Of Comparisons.

He is a better writer than reader. He was an abler mathematician than linguist. I should rather have an orange than an apple.

Under Note 8 .- Nouns with Who or Which.

The words (or, Those words) which are signs of complex ideas, are liable to be misunderstood.

The carriages which were formerly in use, were very clumsy.

The place is not mentioned by the geographers who wrote at that time.

Under Note 9 .- Participial Nouns.

Means are always necessary to the accomplishing of ends. By the seeing of the eye, and the hearing of the ear, learn wisdom. In the keeping of his commandments, there is great reward. For the revealing of a secret, there is no remedy. Have you no repugnance to the torturing of animals?

Under Note 10.—Participles, not Nouns.

By breaking the law, you dishonour the lawgiver. An argument so weak is not worth mentioning. In letting go our hope, we let all go. Avoid talking too much of your ancestors. The cuckoo keeps repeating her unvaried notes. Forbear boasting of what you can do.

UNDER RULE II.—NOMINATIVES.

He that is studious, will improve.
They that seek wisdom, will be wise.
She and I are of the same age.
You are two or three years older than eco.
Are not John and thou cousins?
I can write as handsomely as thou.
Nobody said so but he.
Who dost thou think was there?

KEY TO FALSE SYNTAX.—APPOSITION.—ADJS.

Who broke this slate? I.

We are alone; here's none but thou and I.

Them that honour me, I will honour; and they that despise me, shall be lightly esteemed.—1 Sam., ii, 30.

He who in that instance was deceived, is a man of sound judgement.

UNDER RULE III.---APPOSITION.

The book is a present from my brother Richard, him that keeps the book-

I am going to see my friends in the country, them that we met at the ferry. This dress was made by Catharine, the milliner, her that we saw at work. Dennis, the gardener, he that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

Resolve me, why the cottager and king,

He whom sea-sever'd realms obey, and he
Who steals his whole dominion from the waste, Repelling winter blasts with mud and straw, Disquieted alike, draw sigh for sigh.—Young.

UNDER RULE IV .--- ADJECTIVES.

Under Note 1.—Agreement.

Things of this sort are easily understood. Who broke those tongs? Where did I drop these scissors? Bring out those oats. Extinguish those embers. I disregard these minuties. That kind of injuries we need not fear. What was the height of that gallows which Haman erected ?

Under Note 2.—Fixed Numbers.

We rode about ten miles an hour. 'Tis for a thousand pounds. How deep is the water? About six fathoms. The lot is twenty-five feet wide. I have bought eight loads of wood.

Under Note 8.—Reciprocals.

Two negatives, in English, destroy each other.—Lowth cor.
That the heathens tolerated one an other, is allowed.—Fuller cor.
David and Jonathan loved each other tenderly. Words are derived one from an other in various ways. Or better: Derivative words are formed from their primitioes in various ways.—Cooper or.
Teachers like to see their pupils polite to one an other.—Webster cor.
The Graces always hold one an other by the hand.

Under Note 4 .- Of Degrees.

He chose the last of these three. Trissyllables are often accented on the first syllable. Which are the two most remarkable isthmuses in the world ?

Under Note 5.—Of Comparatives.

The Scriptures are more valuable than any other writings. The Russian empire is more extensive than any other government in the

Israel loved Joseph more than all his other children, because he was the son of his old age.

Under Note 6 .- Of Superlatives.

Of all ill habits idleness is the most incorrigible.

Eve was the fairest of women. Hope is the most constant of all the passions.

Under Note 7 .- Of Extra Comparisons.

That opinion is too general (or common) to be easily corrected. Virtue confers the greatest (or highest) dignity upon man. How much better are ye than the fowls!—It. of Luke cor. Do not thou hasten above the Most High.—Exdras cor. This, this was the unkindest cut of all.—Enfield, p. 353. The waters are frozen sooner and harder.—Verstegan cor. A healthier (or more healthy) place cannot be found. The best and the wisest men often meet with discouragements.

Under Note 8 .- Adjectives Connected.

He showed us an easier and more agreeable way. This was the plainest and most convincing argument. Some of the visest and most moderate of the senators. This is an ancient and honourable fraternity. There vice shall meet a fatal and irrevocable doom.

Under Note 9 .- Adjectives Prefixed.

He is an industrious young man. She has an elegant new house. The first two classes have read. The two oldest sons have removed to the westward. England had not seen an other such king.

Under Note 10 .- Of Adjectives for Adverbe.

She reads well and writes neatly. He was extremely prodigal. They went, conformably to their engagement. He speaks very fluently, and reasons justly. The deepest streams run the most silently. These appear to be finished the most neatly. He was scarcely gone, when you arrived. I am exceedingly sorry to hear of your misfortunes. The work was uncommonly well executed. This is not so large a cargo as the last. Thou knowest how good a horse mine is. I cannot think so meanly of him. He acted much more wisely than the others.

Under Note 11.—Of Them for Those.

I bought those books at a very low price. Go and tell those boys to be still. I have several copies: thou art welcome to those two. Which of those three men is the most useful?

Under Note 12.-Of This and That.

Hope is as strong an incentive to action, as fear: that is the anticipation of good, this of evil.

The poor want some advantages which the rich enjoy; but we should not therefore account these happy, and those miserable.

Memory and forecast just returns engage, That pointing back to youth, this on to age.—Pope.

Under Note 18 .- Each, Every One, &c.

Let each of them be heard in his turn.
On the Lord's day, every one of us Christians keeps the sabbath.
Le either of these men known?
No: neither of them has any connexions here.

Under Note 14.—Any and None.

Did any of the company stop to assist you? Here are six; but none of them will answer.

Under Note 15 .- Participial Adjectives.

Some crimes are thought deserving of death. Rudeness of speech is very unbecoming to [or in] a gentleman. To eat with unwashed hands, was disgusting to a Jew.

> Leave then thy joys, unsuiting to such age—or, Leave then thy joys, not suiting such an age, To a fresh comer, and resign the stage.

UNDER RULE V .--- PRONOUNS.

Every one must judge of his own feelings. Can any person, on his entrance into the world, be fully secure that he shall not be deceived?

He cannot see one in prosperity, without envying him. I gave him oats, but he would not eat them. Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put it on Jacob. Take up the tongs, and put them in their place. Let each esteem others better than himself. A person may make himself happy without riches.

Every man should try to provide for himself.

The mind of man should not be left without something on which to employ

its energies.

An idler is a watch that wants both hands, As useless if it goes, as when it stands.— Cowper.

Under Note 1.—Of Pronouns Needless.

Many words darken speech. These praises he then seemed inclined to retract. These people are all very ignorant.

Asa's heart was perfect with the Lord.

Who, instead of going about doing good, are perpetually intent upon doing

mischief.

Whom ye delivered up, and denied in the presence of Pontius Pilate.
Whom, when they had washed her, they laid in an upper chamber. There are witnesses of the fact which I have mentioned.

He is now sorry for what he said. The empress, approving these conditions, immediately ratified them. Though this incident appears improbable, yet I cannot doubt the author's veracity.

Under Note 2.—Of Change in Number.

Thou art my father's brother, else would I reprove thes—or, You are my father's brother, else would I reprove you.
Your weakness is excusable, but your wickedness is not—or, Thy weakness is excusable, but thy wickedness is not.
Now, my son, I forgive thee, and freely pardon thy fault—or, Now, my son, I forgive you, and freely pardon your fault.

You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song, Till nobly rises emulous your own-or, Thou drawst the inspiring breath of ancient song, Till nobly rises emulous thy own.

Under Note 8.—Of Who and Which.

This is the horse which my father imported. Those are the birds which we call gregarious. He has two brothers, one of whom I am acquainted with.

What was that creature which Job called leviathan? Those who desire to be safe, should be careful to do that which is right.

A butterfly, who thought himself an accomplished traveller, happened to light upon a bee-hive. There was a certain householder, who planted a vineyard.

Under Note 4.—Nouns of Multitude.

He instructed and fed the crowds that surrounded him. The court, which has great influence upon the public manners, ought to be very exemplary.

The wild tribes that inhabit the wildnerness, contemplate the ocean with astonishment, and gaze upon the starry heavens with delight.

Under Note 5 .- Of Mere Names.

Judas (which is now an other name for treachery) betrayed his master with He alluded to Phalaris, -which is a name for all that is cruel.

Under Note 6.—Of the Pronoun That,

He was the first that entered. He was the drollest fellow that I ever saw. This is the same man that we saw before.
Who is she that comes clothed in a robe of green?
The wife and fortune that he gained, did not aid him. Men that are avaricious, never have enough. All that I have, is thine.

Was it thou, or the wind, that shut the door?

It was not I that shut it. The babe that was in the cradle, appeared to be healthy.

Under Note 7.—Relative Clauses Connected.

He is a man that knows what belongs to good manners, and that will not do a dishonourable act. The friend who was here, and who entertained us so much, will never be

able to visit us again.

The curiosities which he has brought home, and which we shall have the pleasure of seeing, are said to be very rare.

Under Note 8.—Relative and Preposition.

Observe them in the order in which they stand. We proceeded immediately to the place to which we were directed. My companion remained a week in the state in which I left him, The way in which I do it, is this.

Under Note 9.—Of Adverbs for Relatives.

Remember the condition from which thou art rescued.

I know of no rule by which it may be done.

He drew up a petition, in which he too freely represented his own merita.

The hour is hastening, in which whatever praise or censure I have acquired, will be remembered with equal indifference.

Under Note 10.—Repeat the Noun.

Many will acknowledge the excellence of religion, who cannot tell wherein that excellence consists.

Every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle.—Jeffereon. Better: Not every difference of opinion is a difference of principle.

Next to the knowledge of God, this knowledge of ourselves seems most

worthy of our endeavour.

Under Note 11.—Place of the Relative.

Thou, who hast thus condemned the act, art thyself the man that committed

There is in simplicity a certain majesty, which is far above the quaintness of wit.

Thou, who art a party concerned, hast no right to judge.

It is impossible for such men as those who are likely to get the appointment. ever to determine this question. There are, in the empire of China, millions of people, whose support is derived

almost entirely from rice.

Under Note 12 .- Of What for That.

I had no idea but that the story was true.

The post-boy is not so weary but that he can whistle. He had no intimation but that the men were honest.

Under Note 13 .- Of Adjectives for Antecedents.

Some men are too ignorant to be humble; and without humility there can be no docility

Judas declared him innocent; but innocent he could not be, had he in any respect deceived the disciples.

Be accurate in all you say or do; for accuracy is important in all the concerns of life. Every law supposes the transgressor to be wicked; and indeed he is so, if

the law is just.

UNDER RULE VI.-PRONOUNS.

In youth, the multitude eagerly pursue pleasure, as if it were their chief good.

The council were not unanimous, and they separated without coming to any determination.

The committee were divided in sentiment, and they referred the business to the general meeting.

There happened to the army a very strange accident, which put them in great

consternation.

The enemy were not able to support the charge, and they dispersed and fied. The defendant's counsel had a difficult task imposed on them.

The board of health publish their proceedings. I saw all the species thus delivered from their sorrows.

Under Note 1.—The Idea of Unity.

I saw the whole species thus delivered from its sorrows.

This court is famous for the justice of its decisions. The convention then resolved itself into a committee of the whole.

The crowd was so great that the judges with difficulty made their way through it.

UNDER RULE VII.-PRONOUNS.

Your levity and heedlessness, if they continue, will prevent all substantial improvement.

Poverty and obscurity will oppress him only who esteems them oppressive. Good sense and refined policy are obvious to few, because they cannot be discovered but by a train of reflection.

Avoid haughtiness of behaviour, and affectation of manners: they imply a want of solid merit.

If love and unity continue, they will make you partakers of one an other's

joy. Suffer not jealousy and distrust to enter: they will destroy, like a canker, every germ of friendship.

quences.

Hatred and animosity are inconsistent with Christian charity: guard, therefore, against the slightest indulgence of them.

Every man is entitled to liberty of conscience, and freedom of opinion, if he

does not pervert them to the injury of others.

UNDER RULE VIII.-PRONOUNS.

Neither Sarah, Ann, nor Jane, has performed her task. One or the other must relinquish his claim.

A man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which will move only as it is moved.

Rye or barley, when it is scorched, may supply the place of coffee. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read it in a description.

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life; for it may be thy own lot.

UNDER RULE IX.-VERBS.

 $\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}$ were disappointed. She dares not oppose it. His pulse is too quick. Circumstances alter cases. He needs not trouble himself. Twenty-four pence are two shillings. On one side were beautiful meadows. He may pursue what studies he pleases. What has become of our cousins? There were more impostors than one. What say his friends on this subject? What say in History Thou knows the urgency of the case.
What avail good sentiments with a bad life?
Have those books been sent to the school?
There are many occasions for the exercise of patience. What sounds has each of the vowels? There was a great number of spectators. There is an abundance of treatises on this easy science.

While, ever and anon, there fall Huge heaps of hoary moulder'd walls—or, While, ever and anon, there falls A heap of hoary moulder'd walls.

He that trusts in the Lord, will never be without a friend. Errors that originate in ignorance, are generally excusable. Be ye not as the horse, or as the mule, which has no understanding. Not one of the authors who mention this incident, is entitled to credit. The man and woman that were present, being strangers to him, wondered at his conduct. There necessarily follow from thence these plain and unquestionable conse-

> O thou, forever present in my way, Who all my motives and my toils surveyst—or, O thou, forever present in my way, Who dost my motives and my toils survey.

Under Note 1.—Nominative with Adjuncts.

The derivation of these words is uncertain. Four years' interest was demanded. One added to nineteen, makes twenty. The increase of orphans renders the addition necessary. The road to virtue and happiness is open to all.

The ship, with all her crew, was lost.

A round of vain and foelish pursuits, delights some folks. Under Note 2.—Composite Subjects.

To obtain the praise of men, was their only object. To steal and then deny it, is a double sin. To copy and claim the writings of others, is plagiarism.

To live soberly, righteously, and piously, is required of all men.

That it is our duty to promote peace and harmony among men, admits of no dispute.

Under Note 3.— Verb between Nominatives.

The reproofs of instruction are the way of life. A diphthong is two vowels joined in one syllable. So great an affliction to him were his wicked sons. What are the latitude and longitude of that island? He churlishly said to me, 'Who are you?'

Under Note 4.—Form Adapted to Style.

Familiar Style.

Was it thou that built that house? That boy writes very elegantly. Could not thou write without blotting thy book? Does not thou think—or, Don't thou think, it will rain to-day?

Does not—or, Don't your cousin intend to visit you?

That boy has torn my book. Was it thou that spread the hay? Was it James or thou that let him in ? He dares not say a word. Thou stood in my way and hindered me.

2. Solemn Style. The Lord hath prepared his throne in the heavens; and his kingdom ruleth

over all.—Pealms, ciii, 19.

Thou answeredst them, O Lord our God: thou wast a God that forgave* them, though thou tookest vengeance of their inventions.

Then thou spakest in vision to thy Holy One, and saidst.—Psalms, lxxxix, So then, it is not of him that willeth, nor of him that runneth, but of God that showeth mercy.—Rom., ix, 16.

Under Note 5.—The Nominative Expressed.

New York, Fifthmonth 8d, 1823.

Dear friend, I am sorry to hear of thy loss; but I hope it may be retrieved. I should be happy to render thee any assistance in my power. I shall call to see thee to-morrow morning. Accept assurances of my regard. A. B.

New York, May 3d, P. M., 1823.

Dear sir. I have just received the kind note you favoured me with this morning; and I cannot forbear to express my gratitude to you. On further information, I find I have not lost so much as I at first supposed; and I believe I shall still be able to meet all my engagements. I should, however, be happy to see you. Accept, dear sir, my most cordial thanks.

Will martial flames forever fire thy mind, And wilt thou never be to Heaven resign'd !

UNDER RULE X .-- VERBS.

The nobility were assured that he would not interpose.

^{*} Forgacest (as in Psalm xcix, 8,) appears to be wrong; because the relative that and its antecedent God are of the third person, and not of the second.

The committee have attended to their appointment.

Mankind were not united by the bonds of civil society.

The majority were disposed to adopt the measure.

The peasantry go barefoot, and the middle sort make use of wooden shoes.

All the world are spectators of your conduct.

Blessed are the people that know the joyful sound.

Under Note 1.—The Idea of Unity.

The church has no power to inflict corporal punishments. The fleet was seen sailing up the channel. The meeting has established several salutary regulations. The regiment consists of a thousand men.

A detachment of two hundred men was immediately sent. Every auditory takes this in good part.

In this business, the house of commons was of no weight. Is the senate considered as a separate body?

There is a flock of birds.

No society is chargeable with the disapproved conduct of particular members.

UNDER RULE XI .--- VERBS.

Temperance and exercise preserve health.

Time and tide wait for no man.

My love and affection towards thee remain unaltered.

Wealth, honour, and happiness, foreake the indolent.

My flesh and my heart fait.

In all his works, there are sprightliness and vigour.

Elizabeth's meekness and humility were extraordinary.

In unity consist the security and welfare of every society.

High pleasures and luxurious living beget satiety.

Much do human pride and folly require correction.

Our conversation and intercourse with the world are, in several respects, an education for vice.

Occasional release from toil, and indulgence of ease, are what nature demands, and virtue allows.

What generosity, and what humanity, were then displayed?

What thou desir'st,

And what thou fearest, alike destroy all hope.

Under Note 1.—Affirmation with Negation.

Wisdom, and not wealth, procures esteem.
Prudence, and not pomp, is the basis of his fame.
Not fear, but labour has overcome him.
The decency, and not the abstinence, makes the difference.
Not her beauty, but her talents attract attention.
It is her talents, and not her beauty, that attract attention.
It is her beauty, and not her talents, that attracts attention.

Under Note 2 .- As Well As, But, or Save.

His constitution, as well as his fortune, requires care. Their religion, as well as their manners, was ridiculed. Every one, but thou, had been legally discharged. The buyer, as well as the seller, renders himself liable. All songsters, save the hooting owl, were mute. None, but thou, O mighty prince! can avert the blow. Nothing, but frivolous amusements, pleases the indolent. Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was admired for his eloquence.

Under Note 8 .- Each, Every, or No.

Each day, and each hour, brings its portion of duty. Every house, and even every cottage, was plundered. Every thought, every word, and every action, will be brought into judgement, whether it be good or evil.

The time will come, when no oppressor, no unjust man, will be able to screen himself from punishment.

No bandit flerce, no tyrant mad with pride, No cavern'd hermit, rests self-satisfied.—Pope.

Under Note 4 .- And Required.

In this affair, perseverance and dexterity were requisite.
Town and country are equally agreeable to me.
Sobriety and humility lead to honour.
The king the local and the commons compose the Brit

The king, the lords, and the commons, compose the British parliament. The man and his whole family are dead.

A small house and a trifling annuity are still granted him.

Under Note 5 .- Distinct Subject Phrases.

To profess, and to possess, are very different things.

To do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with God, are duties of universal obligation.

To be round or square, to be solid or fluid, to be large or small, and to be moved swiftly or slowly, are all equally alien from the nature of thought.

UNDER RULE XII.--VERBS.

Neither imprudence, credulity, nor vanity, has ever been imputed to him. What the heart or the imagination dictates, flows readily. Neither authority nor analogy supports such an opinion. Either ability or inclination was wanting. Redundant grass or heath affords abundance to their cattle. The returns of kindness are sweet; and there is neither honour, nor virtue, nor utility, in repelling them.

The sense or drift of a proposition, often depends upon a single letter.

Under Note 1.—Nominatives that Disagree.

Neither he nor you were there.

Either the boys or I was in fault.

Neither he nor I intend to be present.

Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved.

Whether one person or more were concerned in the business, does not yet appear.

Under Note 2.—The Concord Completed.

Are they, or am I, expected to be there?

Neither is he, nor am I, capable of it.

Either he has been imprudent, or his associates have been vindictive.

Neither were their riches, nor was their influence great.

Under Note 3 .- Place of the First Person.

My father and I were riding out.
The premiums were given to George and me.
Jane and I are invited.
They ought to invite my eister and me.
We dreamed a dream in one night, he and I.

Under Note 4.—Distinct Subject Phrases.

To practise tale-bearing, or even to countenance it, is great injustice. To reveal secrets, or to betray one's friends, is contemptible perfidy.

UNDER RULE XIII.—VERBS.

Doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and go into the mountains, and seek

that which is gone astray?

Did he not tell thee his fault, and entrest thee to forgive him?

If he understands the business, and attends to it, wherein is he deficient?

The day is approaching, and is hastening upon us, in which we must give an account of our stewardship.

If thou dost not turn unto the Lord, but dost forget him who remembered thee in thy distress, great will be thy condemnation—or, better: If thou turn not unto the Lord, but forget him who remembered thee in thy distress, great will be thy condemnation.

There are a few, who have kept their integrity to the Lord, and who prefer his truth to all other enjoyments.

This report was current yesterday, and it agrees with what we heard before. Virtue is generally praised, and it would be generally practised also, if men were wise.

Under Note 1.—Preterits and Participles.

He would have gone with us, if we had invited him. They have chosen the part of honour and virtue. He soon began to be weary of having nothing to do. Somebody has broken my slate. I saw him when he did it.

Under Note 2.—Form Adapted to Sense.

He had entered into the conspiracy. The American planters raise cotton and rice. The report is founded on truth. I entered the room and sat down. Go and lie down, my son. With such books, it will always be difficult to teach children to read.

UNDER RULE XIV.—PARTICIPLES.

Under Note 1.—Of Expunged.

By observing truth, you will command respect. I could not, for my heart, forbear pitying him. I heard them discussing this subject. By consulting the best authors, he became learned. Here are rules, by observing which, you may avoid error.

Under Note 2.—Of Inserted.

Their consent was necessary for the raising of any supplies. Thus the saving of a great nation devolved on a husbandman. It is an overvaluing of ourselves, to decide upon every thing. The teacher does not allow any calling of ill names. That burning of the capitol was a wanton outrage. May nothing hinder our receiving of so great a good.
My admitting of the fact will not affect the argument.
Cain's killing of his brother originated in envy.

Under Note 8.—Expression Changed.

Cassar carried off the treasures, which his opponent had neglected so sake with him.

It is dangerous to play with edge tools.

I intend to return in a few days.

B suffer needlessly—or, Needless suffering is never a duty.

Nor is it wise to complain.

I well remember to have told you so-or, that I told you so.

The doing of good—or, To do good, is a Christian's vocation.

Piety is a constant endeavour to live to God. It is an earnest desire to do his will, and not our own.

Under Note 4.—The Leading Word.

There is no harm in women's knowing about these things.
They did not give notice of the pupil's leaving.
The sun, darting his beams through my window, awoke me.
The maturity of the sago tree is known by the leaves' being covered with a delicate white powder.

Under Note 5 .- Reference of Participles.

Sailing up the river, you may see the whole town.
Being conscious of guilt, men tremble at death—or, Conscioueness of guilt renders death terrible.
By yielding to temptation, we sacrifice our peace.
In loving our enemies, we shed no man's blood.
By teaching the young, we prepare them for usefulness.

Under Note 6 .- Participles, not Preterits.

A nail well driven will support a great weight. See here a hundred sentences stolen from my work. I found the water entirely frozen, and the pitcher broken. Being forsaken by my friends, I had no other resource.

Under Note 7.—Form of Participles.

Till by barbarian deluges o'erflowed.
Like the lustre of diamonds set in gold.
A beam ethereal, sullied and absorb'd.
With powerless wings around them wrapp'd.
Error learned from preaching, is held as sacred truth.

UNDER RULE XV.-ADVERBS.

Under Note 1.—The Placing of Adverbe.

The work will never be completed.
We should always prefer our duty to our pleasure.
It is impossible to be continually at work.
He behaved impertinently to his master.
The heavenly bodies are perpetually in motion.
He found her not only busy, but even pleased and happy.

Under Note 2.—Adverbs for Adjectives.

Give him an early and decisive answer.
When a substantive is put absolute.
Such expressions sound kareh.
Such events are of rare (or unfrequent) occurrence.
Velvet feels very smooth.

Under Note 8.—Of Here for Hither, &c.

Bring him hither to me.

I shall go thither again in a few days.

Whither are they all riding in so great haste?

Under Note 4 .- Of From Hence, &c.

Hence it appears that the statement is incorrect.

Thence arose the misunderstanding.

Do you know whence it proceeds?

Under Note 5 .- Of the Adverb How.

You see that not many are required. I knew that they had heard of his misfortunes. He remarked, that time was valuable.

Under Note 6 .- Of the Adverb No.

Know now, whether this is thy son's coat or not. Whether he is in fault or not, I cannot tell. I will ascertain whether it is so or not.

Under Note 7.—Of Double Negatives.

I will by no means entertain a spy.

Nobody ever invented or discovered any thing, in any way to be compared with this.

Be honest, and take no shape or semblance of disguise.

I did not like either his temper or his principles.

Nothing ever can justify ingratitude.

UNDER RULE XVI.—CONJUNCTIONS.

Under Note 1 .- Of Two Terms with One.

He has made alterations in the work, and additions to it.

He is more bold than his companion, but not so wise.

Sincerity is as valuable as knowledge, and even more so.

I always have been, and I always shall be, of this opinion.

What is now kept secret, shall be hereafter displayed and seen in the clearest light.

We pervert the noble faculty of speech, when we use it to defame or to disquiet our neighbours.

Be more anxious to acquire knowledge, than to show it.

The court of chancery frequently mitigates and disarms the common law.

Under Note 2 .- Of Lest or But for That.

We were apprehensive that some accident had happened. I do not deny that he has merit.

Are you afraid that he will forget you?

These paths and bow'rs, doubt not that our joint hands - Will keep from wilderness.

Under Note 8.—Prefer Than.

It was no other than his own father. Have you no further proof than this? I expected something more than this. He no sooner retires than his heart burns with devotion. Such literary filching is nothing else than robbery.

Under Note 4 .- Of Correspondents.

Neither despise nor oppose what you do not understand. He would neither do it himself nor let me do it. The majesty of good things is such, that the confines of them are reverend. Whether he intends to do so or not, I cannot tell.

Send me such articles only, as are adapted to this market.

So far as I am able to judge, the book is well written.

No errors are so trivial as not to deserve correction.

It will neither improve the mind, nor delight the fancy.

There is no condition so secure that it cannot admit of change.

Do you think this is as good as that?

The relations are so obscure that they require much thought.

None is so fierce as to dare stir him up. There was no man so sanguine as not to apprehend some ill consequence. I must be so candid as to own that I do not understand it. The book is not so well printed as it ought to be.

> As still he sat as those who wait, Till judgement speak the doom of fate.

UNDER RULE XVII.--PREPOSITIONS.

Under Note 1.—Choice of Prepositions.

She finds a difficulty in fixing her mind.

This affair did not fall under his cognizance. He was accused of betraying his trust.
There was no water, and he died of thirst.
I have no occasion for his services. You may safely confide in him. I entertain no prejudice against him.
You may rely on what I tell you.
Virtue and vice differ widely from each other.
This remark is founded on truth. After many toils, we arrived at our journey's end. I will tell you a story very different from that. Their conduct is agreeable to their profession. Excessive pleasures pass from satiety into disgust. I turned in disgust from the spectacle. They are gone into the meadow. Let this be divided among the three. The shells were broken into pieces.
The deception has passed with every one.
They never quarrel with each other. Through every difficulty-or, Amidst all difficulties, he persevered. Let us go up stairs. I was in London, when this happened. We were detained at home, and disappointed of our walk. This originated in mistake. munication with the other buildings.

The Bridewell is situated on the west of the City-Hall, and it has no com-

I am disappointed in the work; it is very inferior to what I expected.

Under Note 2.—Omission of Prepositions.

Be worthy of me, as I am worthy of you. They cannot but be unworthy of the care of others. Thou shalt have no portion on this side of the river. Sestos and Abydos were exactly opposite to each other. Ovid was banished from Rome by his patron Augustus.

UNDER RULE XIX.—POSSESSIVES,

Under Note 1 .- The Possessive Form.

Man's chief good is an upright mind. I will not destroy the city for ten's sake. Moses's rod was turned into a serpent. They are wolves in *sheeps*' clothing.

The tree is known by its fruit.

The privilege is not theirs, any more than it is yours.

Yet he was gentle as soft summer airs, Had grace for others' sins, but none for theirs.—Com

Under Note 2.—Possessives Connected.

There is but little difference between the Earth's and Venus's diameter. This hat is *John's*, or James's.

The store is opposite to Morris and Company's. This palace has been the grand Sultan Mahomet's. This was the Apostle Paul's advice.

Were Cain's occupation and Abel's the same?

Were Cain's and Abel's occupation the same?

Were Cain's and Abel's parents the same?

Were Cain's parents and Abel's parents the same?

Were Cain's parents and Abel's the same?

Were Cain's parents and Abel's the same?

Were Cain and Abel's father there?

Thy Maker's will has placed thee here, A Maker wise and good.

Under Note 8 .- Choice of Forms.

The government of the world is not left to chance.
He was heir to the son of Louis the Sixteenth.
The throne we honour, is the people's choice.
We met at the house of my brother's partner.
An account of the proceedings of Alexander's court.
Here is a copy of the Constitution of the Teachers' Society in the city of New-York.

Under Note 4.—Nouns with Possessives Plural.

Their health perhaps may be pretty well secured. We all have talents committed to our charge. For your sake forgave I it, in the sight of Christ. We are, for our part, well satisfied. The pious cheerfully submit to their lot. Fools think it not worth their while to be wise.

Under Note 5 .- Of Possessives with Participles.

I rewarded the boy for studying so diligently. Have you a rule for thus parsing the participle? He errs in giving the word a double construction. By offending others, we expose ourselves. They deserve our thanks for quickly relieving us.

UNDER RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

Thee only have I chosen.

Whom shall we send on this errand?

My father allowed my brother and me to accompany him.

Him that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

Whom should I meet but my old friend!

He accosts whomever he meets.

Whomever the court favours, is safe.

Them that honour me, I will honour.

Whom do you think I saw the other day?

Under Note 1 .- An Object Required.

The ambitious are always seeking to aggrandize themselves. I must premise three circumstances.

This society does not allow personal reflections.

False accusation cannot diminish real merit.

His servants ye are whom ye obey.

Under Note 2 .- Of False Transitives.

Good keeping fattens the herd.
We endeavoured to reconcile the parties.
Being weary, he sat down.
Go, fies away into the land of Judah.
The popular lords did not fail to enlarge on the subject.

Under Note 3 .- Passive Verbe.

The benefit of their recantation was refused them.
Temporal riches are not promised to believers.
Several beautiful pictures were shown us.
But, unfortunately, the facour was denied ms.
A high compliment was paid you.
The question has never been asked ms.

UNDER RULE XXI.—SAME CASES.

We thought it was thou.

I would act the same part, if I were he.

It could not have been she.

It is not I, that he is angry with.

They believed it to be me.

It was thought to be he.

If it had been she, she would have told us.

We know it to be them.

Who do you think it is?

Whom do you suppose it to be?

We did not know who they were.

Thou art he whom they described.

Impossible! it can't be I.

Who did he think you were?

Who say ye that I am?

UNDER RULE XXIL-OBJECTIVES.

Let that remain a secret between you and me.
I lent the book to some one, I know not [to] whom.
Whom did he inquire for? Thee.
From him that is needy, turn not away.
We are all accountable, each for his own acts.
Does that boy know whom he is speaking to?
I bestow my favours on whomsever I will.

UNDER RULE XXIII,-INFINITIVES.

Please to excuse my son's absence. Cause every man to go out from me. Forbid them to enter the garden. Do you not perceive it to move? Allow others to discover your merit. He was seen to go in at that gate. Permit me to pass this way.

UNDER RULE XXIV.—INFINITIVES.

I felt a chilling sensation creep over me. I have heard him mention the subject. Bid the boys come in immediately. I dare say he has not got home yet. Let no rash promise be made.

We solutimes see bad men honoured.
A good reader will make himself distinctly heard.

UNDER RULE XXV.-NOM. ABSOLUTE.

I being young, they deceived me.
They refusing to comply, I withdrew.
Thou being present, he would not tell what he knew.
The child is lost; and I whither shall I go?

O happy we! surrounded thus with blessings! "Thou too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cassar overcome.

But he, the chieftain of them all, His sword hangs rusting on the wall .- W. Scott. She quick relapsing to her former state, With boding fears approach the serving train. There all thy gifts and graces we display, Thou, only thou, directing all our way .- Pops.

UNDER RULE XXVI.-SUBJUNCTIVES.

First Clause-Subjunctive Present,

He will maintain his cause, though he loss his estate. They will fine thee, unless thou offer an excuse. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rain. Let him take heed lest he fall. On condition that he come, I consent to stay. If he be but discreet, he will succeed. Take heed that thou *speak* not to Jacob. If thou *cast* me off, I shall be miserable. Send them to me, if thou *please*. Watch the door of thy lips, lest thou utter folly.

Second Clause. - Subjunctive Imperfect.

If I were to write, he would not regard it. If thou fall as I do, we should soon decide.

Though thou shed thy blood in the cause, it would but prove thee sincerely a fool. If thou loved him, there would be more evidence of it. I believed, whatever were the issue, all would be well. If love were never feigned, it would appear to be scarce. There fell from his eyes, as it were scales.

If he were an impostor, he must have been detected.

Were death denied, all men would wish to die. O that there were yet a day to redress thy wrongs! Though thou wert huge as Atlas, thy efforts would be vain.

Last Clause.—Indicative Mood.

Though he seems to be artless, he has deceived us. If he thinks as he speaks, he may safely be trusted. Though this event is strange, it certainly did happen. If thou lovest tranquillity of mind, seek it not abroad.

If seasons of idleness are dangerous, what must a continued habit of it prove?

Though he was a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered.

I knew thou wast not slow to hear.

Under Note 1 .- Words of Time.

The work was finished last week. He has been out of employment this fortnight. This mode of expression was formerly in use.

I shall be much obliged to him if he will attend to it.

I will pay the vows which my lips uttered when I was in trouble.

I have compassion on the multitude, because they have continued with me now three days. I thought, by the accent, that he was speaking to his child.

And he that had been dead, sat up and began to speak.

Thou hast borne, and hast had patience, and for my name's sake hast laboured, and hast not fainted.

Ye will not come unto me that ye may have life-or, Ye would not come unto me that ye might have life. At the end of this quarter, I shall have been at school two years.

We have done no more than it was our duty to do.

Under Rule 2.—Relative Tenses.

We expected that he would arrive last night.

Our friends intended to meet us.

We hoped to see you.

He would not have been allowed to enter.

Under Note 8.—Permanent Propositions.

The doctor affirmed, that fever always produces thirst. The ancients asserted, that virtue is its own reward.

PROMISCUOUS EXAMPLES CORRECTED.

LESSON I.

There is a spirit in man; and the inspiration of the Almighty giveth kim understanding.

My people do not consider.

I have never heard whom they invited.

Then hasten thy return; for, thou away, Nor lustre has the sun, nor joy the day.

I am as well as when you were here.

That elderly man, him that came in late, I supposed to be the superintendent.

All the virtues of mankind are to be counted upon a few fingers; but their follies and vices are innumerable.

It must indeed be confessed, that a lampoon or a satire does not carry in it robbery or murder.

There were more persons than one engaged in this affair.

A man who lacks ceremony, has need of great merit.

A wise man avoids the showing of any excellence in trifles. Better—forbears to show—on, is careful not to show, &c.

The first and most important female quality is sweetness of temper.

We choose rather to lead than to follow.

Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as of admiration.

He must fear many, whom many fear.

Every one partakes of honour bestowed on the worthy

The king and the queen were not at all deceived.—[Note 4th, Rule xi.]
Were there no difference, there would be no choice.

I would rather have been informed.

Must thou return this evening?

Life and death are in the power of the tongue. I saw a person that I took to be her.

Let him be who he may, I shall not stop.

This is certainly a useful invention.

That such a spirit as thou does not understand me.

'It is no more than justice,' quoth the farmer.

LESSON II.

Great improvements have been made. What I have heard, is undoubtedly true. The nation is torn by feuds which threaten its ruin. The account of these transactions was incorrect. Godliness with contentment is great gain. The number of sufferers has not been ascertained. There is one or more of them yet in confinement.

They have chosen the wisest part.

He spent his whole life in doing good.
They ecarcely know that temperance is a virtue.
I am afraid that I have laboured in vain.
Mischief on itself doth back recoil.
This construction sounds rather harsh.
What is the cause of the leave! curling?
Was it thou, that made the noise?
Let thy flock cloths the naked.
Wisdom and knowledge are granted unto thee.
His conduct was surprisingly strange.
This woman taught my brother and me to read.
Let your promises be such as you can perform.
We shall sell them in the state in which they now are.
We may, however, add this observation.
This came into fashion when I was young.
I did not use the leaves, but the root of the plant.
We have continually used every means in our power.
Pass ye away, ye inhabitants of Saphir—or, Pass away, thou inhabitant of Saphir.
Give every syllable and every letter its proper sound.

LESSON III.

To know exactly how much mischief may be ventured upon with impunity, is knowledge enough for some folks. Every leaf and every twig teems with life. I rejoiced at this intelligence. At this stage of advancement, the pupil finds little difficulty in understanding the passive and the neuter verbs.

I was afraid that I should lose the parcel. Which of all these patterns is the prettiest? They that for who despise instruction, shall not be wise. Both thou and thy advisers have mistaken your interest.

An idle soul shall suffer hunger. The lips of knowledge are a precious jewel. My cousin and I are requested to attend. I can only say, that such is my belief. This is different from the conscience' being made to feel.

Here is ground for their leaving of the world with peace—or, (better,) Here is ground for leaving the world with peace. Whither are you all running so fast? Mun is the noblest work of creation. Of all crimes willful murder is the most atrocious. The tribes that I visited, are partially civilized. Hence I conclude, they are in error. The girls' books are neater than the boys'. I intended to transcribe it. Shall a character made up of the very worst passions, pass under the name of gentleman ? Rhoda ran in, and told that Peter stood before the gate. What are latitude and longitude? Cicero was more eloquent than any other Roman-or, Cicero was the most eloquent of the Romans. Who dares apologize for Pizarro !—which is but another name for rapacity.

LESSON IV.

Tell me whether you will do it or not.
After the straitest [or strictest] sect, I lived a Pharisee.
We have no more than five loaves and two fishes.
I know not who it was thut did it.

Doubt not, little though there be, That I'll cast a crumb to thee.

This rule is the best that can be given.

I have never seen any other way.

These are poor amends for the men and treasures that we have lost.

Dost thou know those boys?

This is a part of the estate of my uncle's father.

Many people never learn to speak correctly.

Some people are rash, and others timid: these apprehend too much, those too little.

Is it lawful for us to give tribute to Cæsar or not?

It was not worth while to preserve any permanent enmity.

I no sooner saw my face in it, than I was startled at the shortness of it.

Every person is answerable for his own conduct.

They are men that scorn a mean action, and that will exert themselves to serve you.

I do not recollect ever to have paid it—the paying of it—the payment of it—

or, that I ever paid it.

The stoics taught that all crimes are equal.

Every one of these theories is now exploded.

Any of these four will answer.

There is no situation in which he would be happy.

The boy that you thought so clever, has been detected in stealing. I will meet thee there, if thou please.

He is not so sick, but that he can laugh.

These clothes do not fit me.

The audience were all very attentive.

Wert thou some star, which from the ruin'd roof Of shak'd Olympus by mischance did fall !

LESSON V.

Was the master, or were many of the scholars, in the room? His father and mother's consent was asked.

Who is he supposed to be? He is a venerable old man.

It was then my purpose to visit Sicily. It is only to the learner, and him that is in doubt, that this assistance is rec ommended.

There is not the least hope of his recovery.

Anger and impatience are always unreasonable.

Opportunity to do good is the highest preferment that a noble mind desires. The year in which he died is not mentioned.

Had I known it, I should not have gone.

Was it thou, that spoke to me?

The house is pleasantly situated.

He did it as privately as he possibly could.

To subdue our passions—The subduing of our passions—The subjugation of our passions—or, That we subdue our passions, is the noblest of conquests. James is more diligent than thou.

Words interwoven with sighs found out their way.

He appears to be excessively diffident. The number of our days is with thee.

As a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him.

The circumstances of this case, are different.

Well for us, if some other such men should rise!

A man that is young in years, may be old in hours, if he loss no time.

The chief captain, fearing that Paul would be pulled into pieces by them, commanded the soldiers to go down, and to take him by force from among them.

INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Nay, weep not, gentle Eros; there are left us Ourselves to end ourselves.

CORRECTIONS UNDER THE GENERAL RULE.

Are there, then, more true religions than one?

The laws of Lycurgus but substituted insensibility for enjoyment.

Rain is seldom or never seen at Lima.

The young bird raising its open mouth for food, exhibits a natural indication of corporeal want.

There is much truth in Ascham's observation.

Adopting the doctrine in which he had been taught-or, Adopting the doctrine which had been taught him.

This library contained more than five hundred thousand volumes. The Coptic alphabet was one of the latest that were formed.

There are many evidences of men's proneness to vice.

To perceive nothing, and not to perceive, are the same—or, To perceive nothing, is the same as not to perceive.

The king of France or of England, was to be the umpire.

He may be said to have sayed the life of a citizen; and, consequently, he is entitled [or, to be entitled] to the reward.

The men had made inquiry for Simon's house, and were standing before the

gate. Give no more trouble than you cannot possibly help.

That the art of printing was then unknown, was a circumstance in some respects favourable to the freedom of the pen.

An other passion which the present age is apt to run into, is a desire to

make children learn all things.

It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or which at least, they may not acquire.

Nor was Philip wanting in his endeavours to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had corrupted most of the leading men in Greece.

The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded, wheeled about and halted, with the

river behind them.

Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants; and riches, upon the enjoying of our superfluities.

> That brother should not war with brother. Nor one despise and grieve an other. Such is the refuge of our youth and age; At first from hope, at last from vacancy—or, Such is the refuge of our youth and age; Of that from hope, of this from vacancy. Triumphant Sylla! couldst thou then divine. By aught but Romans Rome should thus be laid?

END OF THE KEY TO THE ORAL EXERCISES.

APPENDIX I.

(ORTHOGRAPHY.)

OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

In the first chapter of Part I, the powers of the letters, or the elementary sounds of the English language, were duly enumerated and explained; for these, as well as the letters themselves, are few, and may be fully stated in few words: but, since we often express the same sound in many different ways, and also, in some instances, give to the same letter several different sounds,—or, it may be, no sound at all,—any adequate account of the powers of the letters considered severally according to usage,—that is, of the sound or sounds of each letter, with its mute positions, as these occur in practice,—must, it was thought, descend to a minuteness of detail not desirable in the first charter of Orthography. For this research the following particulars the first chapter of Orthography. For this reason, the following particulars have been reserved to be given here as an Appendix, pertaining to the First

Part of this English Grammar.

The terms long and short, which are often used to denote certain vowel sounds, being also used, with a different import, to distinguish the quantity of the control of the of syllables, are frequently misunderstood: for which reason, we have often substituted for them the terms open and close,—the former, to denote the sound usually given to a vowel when it forms or ends an accented syllable; as, ba, be, bi, bo, bu, by,—the latter, to denote the sound which the vowel commonly takes when closed by a consonant; as, ab, eb, ib, ob, ub.

I. OF THE LETTER A.

The vowel A has four* sounds properly its own:-

The English, open, or long a; as in fame, favour, efficacious.
 The French, close, or short a; as in bat, banner, balance.
 The Italian, or middle a; as in far, father, aha, comma, scoria, eofa.
 The Dutch, Old-Saxon, or broad a; as in wall, warm, water.

DIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH A.

The only proper diphthong in which a is put first, is the word ay, meaning yes; in which a has its middle sound, and y that of open e.

Aa, when pronounced as an improper diphthong, takes the sound of close

Aa, when pronounced as an in-a; as in Balaam, Canaan, Isaac.

A, a Latin improper diphthong, very common also in Anglo-Saxon, generally has the sound of open or long e; as in Casar, anigma, paan; sometimes and also in anharcesis, diagresis, et extern. Some authors rethat of close or short e; as in aphæresis, diæresis, et cætera. ject the a, and write Cesar, enigma, &c.

Ai, an improper diphthong, generally has the sound of open or long a; as in sail, sail, vain. In a final unaccented syllable, it sometimes preserves the first sound of a, as in childian, mortmain; but oftener takes the sound of close or short i; as in certain, curtain, mountain, villain: in said, saith, again, and against, that of close s; and in the name Britain, that of close u.

Ao, an improper diphthong, occurs in the word gool; now frequently written, as it is pronounced, jail; and in the adjective extraordinary, and its derivatives, in which, according to Walker, the a is silent.

^{*} Some writers distinguish from the first of these sounds the grace sound of a, heard in care, fisir, there, &c. But Walker teaches no difference.

Au, an improper diphthong, is generally sounded like broad a; as in cause, caught. Before n and an other consonant, it has the sound of middle a; as in aunt, faunt, launch, laundry. Gauge is pronounced gage.

Au, an improper diphthong, is always sounded like broad a; as in draw, drawn, drawn.

Ay, an improper diphthong, like as, has the sound of open or long a; as in day, pay, delay: in sayet and saye, that of close e.

TRIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH A.

Awe is sounded au, like broad a. Aye, an adverb signifying elecays, has the sound of open a only, being different, both in sound and spelling, from the adverb ay, yes, with which it is often carelessly confounded.

II. OF THE LETTER B.

The consonant B has but one sound; as in boy, robber, cub.

B is silent before t or after m in the same syllable; as in debt, debtor, doubt, dumb, lamb, climb, tomb. It is heard in subtile, fine, but not in subtle, cumning.

III. OF THE LETTER C.

The consonant C has two sounds; the one kard, like that of k, the other eoft, or rather hissing, like that of s.

The fore a, o, u, l, r, t, or when it ends a syllable, is generally hard like k; as in can, come, curb, clay, crab, act, action, accent, flaced.

C before e, i, or y, is always soft like s; as in cent, civil, decency, acid. In a few words c takes the flat sound of s, like that of s; as in discern,

suffice, sacrifice, sice.

To before ea, ia, ie, io, or eou, when the sceent precedes, sounds like sh; as in ocean, special, species, gracious, cetaceous.

C is silent in czar, czarina, victuals, indict, muscle, corpuscle.

Ch is generally sounded like tch; as in church, chance, child. But in words CA is generally southed his art, as in current chance, cuta. But in words derived from the learned languages, it has the sound of k; as in character, scheme, catechise, chorus, chyle, patriarch, drackma, magna charta: except in chart, charter, churity. Ch, in words derived from the French, takes the sound of st; as in chaise, machine.

Arch, before a vowel, is pronounced ark; as in archives, archangel, archively.

pelago: except in arched, archer, archery, archenemy. Before a consonant, it is pronounced artch; as in archbiehop, archduke.

Ch is silent in schiem, yatch, drachm; unsettled in schedule.

IV. OF THE LETTER D.

The general sound of the consonant D, is heard in dog, eddy, did. D, in the termination ed, preceded by a sharp consonant, takes the sound of t, when the c is suppressed: as in faced, stuffed, oracled, tripped, passed;

pronounced, fasts, stuft, cract, tript, past.

D before ia, ie, io, or sou, when the accent precedes, generally sounds like j; as in Indian, soldier, tedious, hideous. So in verdure, arduous, education.

V. OF THE LETTER E.

The vowel E has three sounds properly its own:

 The open or long; as in me, mere, menial, melodious.
 The close or short; as in men, merry, ebony.
 The obscure or faint; as in open, garden, chovel, able. This third sound is scarcely perceptible, and is barely sufficient to articulate the consonant and form a syllable.

Efinal is mute, and belongs to the syllable formed by the preceding vowel

or diphthong; as in age, eve, ice, ore. Except—1. In the words, be, he, me, we, she, and the, in which it has the open sound. 2. In Greek and Latin words, in which it has its open sound, and forms a distinct syllable; as in Peneloope, Pasiphā, Opanē, Gargaphā, Arsino, apostrophe, catastrophe, simile, extempore, epitome.

3. In the terminations cre, gre, tre, in which it has the sound

of close u; as in acre, meagre, centre.

Mute e, after a single consonant, or after st or th, generally preserves the open or long sound of the preceding vowel; as in cane, here, pine, cone, tune, thyme, baste, clothe; except in syllables unaccented; as the last of generine; and in a few monosyllables; as bade, are, were, gone, shone, one, done, give,

live, shove, love.

DIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH E.

E before an other vowel, in general, either forms with it an *improper* diphthong, or else belongs to a separate syllable.

Ea, an improper diphthong, mostly sounds like open e; as in ear, fear, tea: frequently, like close e; as in earl, head, health: sometimes, like open a; as in steak, bear, forswear: rarely, like middle a; as in heart, hearth, hearken. Ea unaccented, sounds like close u; as in vengeance, pageant.

Ee, an improper diphthong, has the sound of open e; as in eel, sheep, tree.

The contractions e'er and ne'er, are pronounced air and nair.

The contractions eer and neer, are pronounced air and nair.

Et, an improper diphthong, mostly sounds like open a; as in reign, voil: frequently, like open e; as in deceit, either, neither, seize: sometimes, like open e; as in height, sleight: often, in unaccented syllables, like close e; as in foreign, forfeit, surfeit, sovereign: rarely, like close e; as in height, nonpareit.

Eto, an improper diphthong, in people sounds like open e; in feoff, feoffment, teopard, jeopardy, like close e; in yeoman, like open o; in George, georgic, like close o; in dangeon, puncheon, sturgeon, &c., like close u. Feod, jeodal, feodat-

the of the first point of the fi oo; as in drow, grow, screw, rheumatism.
In sew and Shrewsbury, ow sounds like open o. Show and strew are prop-

erly spelled, as they are most commonly pronounced, show, strow.

Ey, accented, has the sound of open a; as in bey, prey, survey: unaccented, it has the sound of open e; as in alley, valley, money. Key and ley are pronounced, kee, lee.

TRIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH E.

Eau, a French triphthong, sounds like open o; as in beau, flambeau, port-manteau, bureau: except in beauty, and its compounds, in which it is pro-

nounced like open u.

Rou is a combination of vowels sometimes heard in one syllable, especially after c or q; as in crus-ta-ceous, gor geous. Walker, in his Rhyming Dictionary, gives one hundred and twenty words ending in eous, in all of which he separates these vowels; as in extra-ne-ous. And why, in his Propoulation of the country syllables. Dictionary, he gave us several such anomalies as fa-ba-ce-ous in four syllables, and her-ba-ceous in three, it is not easy to tell. The best rule is this: after c or g, unite these vowels; after the other consonants, separate them.

Mose is a triphthong having the sound of yu. The vulgar pronunciation
you should be carefully avoided.

Eye is an improper triphthong, pronounced like open i.

VI. OF THE LETTER F.

The consonant F has one unvaried sound, which is heard in fan, effort, etaff: except of, which, when simple, is pronounced ov.

VII. OF THE LETTER G.

The consonant G has two sounds; the one hard, guttural, and peculiar to this letter; the other soft, like that of j.

G before a, o, u, l, r, or at the end of a word, is hard; as in game, gone, gull, glory, grace, log, bog.

G before c, i, or y, is soft; as in gem, ginger, elegy. Except—1. In gei, give, geograv, finger, and a few other words. 2. When a syllable is added to a word ending in g: as. long. longer: fog. forgon. gue, geogau, imper, and a low, longer; fog, foggy.

S word ending in g: as, long, longer; fog, foggy.

G is silent before m or n in the same syllable; as in phlegm, apothegm,

gnaw, resign.

G, when silent, usually lengthens the preceding vowel; as in resign, im-

pugn, impregn

puyn, wapregn.

Gh at the beginning of a word has the sound of g kard; as in ghost, ghostly, ghastly: in other situations, it is generally silent; as in high, mighty, plough, bough, through.

Gh final sometimes sounds like f; as in laugh, rough, tough: and sometimes, like g hard; as in burgh. In hough, lough, shough, it sounds like k; thus, hock, lock, shock.

VIII. OF THE LETTER H.

The sound of the consonant H, (though articulate and audible when properly uttered,) is little more than an aspirate breathing. It is heard in hat,

t, hot, hut, adhere.

H at the beginning of words is always sounded; except in heir, herb,

konest, honour, hospital, hoster, hour, humble, humour, and their compounds.

Hafter r, is always silent; as rheum, rhetoric.

Hinal, preceded by a vowel in the same syllable, is always silent; as in ah, Sarah, Nineteh.

IX. OF THE LETTER I.

The vowel I has three sounds, each perhaps properly its own:—
1. The open or long; as in life, fine, time, find, bind, child, mild, wild, pint.
This is a diphthongal sound, and is equivalent to the sound of middle a and that of open e quickly united.

2. The close or short; as in ink, think, sinking.

8. The feeble; as in divest, doctrinal, diversity. This sound is equivalent to that of open e uttered feebly. I generally has this sound when it occurs at the end of an unaccented syllable: except at the end of Latin words, where it is open or long; as in literati. In some words, (principally from other modern languages,) i has the full sound of open e, under the accent; as in Parts Rice making magazine antique shire. In Porto Rico, machine, magazine, antique, shire.

Accented i followed by a vowel, has its open sound; and the vowels belong to separate syllables; as in pliant, diet, satiety, violet, pious.

Unaccented i followed by a vowel, has its feeble sound; as in expatiate,

obedient, various, abstemious.

DIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH I.

I in the situation last described, readily coalesces with the vowel which A, in the stration has described, readily coalesces with the vowe which follows, and is often sunk into the same syllable, forming a proper diphthong; as in fustian, quotient, question. The terminations cion, sion, and tion, are generally pronounced shun; cious and tious are pronounced shus. Is sommonly an improper diphthong. Is final has the sound of open i; as in die, lie, pie, tie. Is medial generally has the sound of open e; as in grief, thief, grenadier. In friend and its compounds, it takes the sound of class e.

TRIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH I.

The triphthongs ieu and iew, sound like open u; as in lieu, adieu, view, revia.

The three vowels iou, in the termination ious, often fall into one syllable and form a triphthong. There are two hundred and forty-five words of this ending; and more than two hundred derivatives from them. Walker has ending; and note that two indicated derivatives from them.

*Transcription several puzzling inconsistencies in their pronunciation; such as fas-tid-i-ous and per-fid-ious, con-ta-gi-ous and sac-ri-le-gious. After c, g, t, or z, these vowels should coalesce; as in gra-cious, re-li-gious, vex-a-tious, ob-nox-ious, and about two hundred other words. After the other consonants, let them form two syllables; (except when there is a synæresis in poetry;) as in du-bi-ous, o-di-ous, va-ri-ous, en-vi-ous.

X. OF THE LETTER J.

The consonant Jalways has the sound of soft g, or of dah; as in joy, jewel: except in hallelujah, better written as it is pronounced, halleluiah.

XI. OF THE LETTER K.

The consonant K has the sound of c hard; and occurs where c would have

The consonant A has the sound of c hara; and occurs where c would have its soft sound: as in keep, kind, smoky.

K before n is silent; as in knave, know, knuckle. It is never doubled in simple English words; but two Kays may come together in certain compounds, or in the separate syllables of some Hebrew names; as, brickbiln, jackinife, Akhub, Bukki, Habakhuk. C before it doubles the sound, and shortens the preceding vowel; as in cockle, wicked.

XII. OF THE LETTER L.

The consonant L has a soft liquid sound; as in line, lily, roll, follow. L is sometimes silent; as in alms, almond, calf, chalk, could, would, should.

XIII. OF THE LETTER M.

The consonant M has but one sound; as in map, murmur, mammon. M before n, at the beginning of a word, is silent; as in Mnason, Mnemosyne, mnemonics. Comptroller is pronounced controller.

XIV. OF THE LETTER N.

The consonant N has two sounds: the pure; as in nun, banner, cannon; and the ringing sound of ng; as in think, mangle, conquer, congress, singing, twinkling. The latter sound should be carefully preserved in all words ending in ing; and in such others as require it.

N final preceded by m, is silent; as in hymn, solemn.

XV. OF THE LETTER O.

The vowel O has three sounds properly its own:—

1. The open or long; as in no, note, opiate, opacity, domain.

2. The close or short; as in not, nor, torrid, dollar.

3. The slender; as in prove, who, to, do, tomb.

O in many words sounds like close u; as in love, shove, son, come, nothing, dost, attorney, gallon, dragon. In the termination on immediately after the accent, o is often sunk into a sound scarcely perceptible like that of obscure of the company of the sign propounced gray, and once, whose e; as in mason, person. One is pronounced wun; and once, wunce.

DIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH O.

Oa, an improper diphthong, has the sound of open o; as in boat, coal, reach: except in broad and great, which have the sound of broad a.

Os, an improper diphthong, when final, has the sound of open o; as in

Os, an improper diphthong, when final, has the sound of open o; as in dos, for, three: except in cance, shoe, pronounced cance, shoe. Æ, a Laim diphthong, generally sounds like open; as in Antaca, fatus: sometimes, like close e; as in fatid. Some authors reject the o, and write fetid, &c.

Os is generally a proper diphthong, uniting the sound of close o or broad o, and that of open e; as in boil, coil, soil, rejoxe. But the vowels sometimes belong to separate syllables; as in stoic. Oi unaccented, sometimes has the sound of close i; as in avoirdupois, connoisseur, tortoise. Choir is now frequently written as it is pronounced, quire.

Oo, an improper diphthong, generally has the slender sound of a continued in the slender sound of a continue

quently written as it is pronounced, quire.

Oo, an improper diphthong, generally has the slender sound of o; as in con, too, voo, fool, room. It issa a shorter sound in foot, good, wood, stood, wood; that of close u, in blood and flood; and that of open o, in door and floor.

Ou is generally a proper diphthong, uniting the sound of close o, and that of u sounded as slender o or oo; as in bound, found, sound, ounce, thou.

Ou is also an improper diphthong; and, as such, it has six sounds:—

1. That of close u; as in rough, tough, young, flourish.

2. That of broad a; as in rough, bough, thought.

3. That of open o; as in court, dough, four, though.

4. That of close o; only in cough, trough, lough, shough.

5. That of slender o or oo; as in soup, you, through.

6. That of oo, shortened; only in would, could, should.

Ou generally sounds like the proper diphthong ou: as in brown, downers.

On generally sounds like the proper diphthong ou; as in brown, dowry, now, shower: but it often has the sound of open o; as in know, show, stow. Oy is sounded like oi; as in joy, toy.

TRIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH O.

Oeu is a French triphthong occurring in the word manocurre, which is pronounced in English man-co-vur. Owe is an improper triphthong, in which the o only is heard, and with its long open sound.

XVI. OF THE LETTER P.

The consonant P has but one sound; which is heard in pen, sup, supper.

It is sometimes silent; as in pealm, receipt, corps.

It is sometimes silent; as in pealm, receipt, corps.

Ph generally sounds like f; as in philosophy. In Stephen and nephew, ph has the sound of v. The h after p, is silent in diphthong, triphthong, naphtha, ophthalmic; and both the p and the h are silent in apophthegm, phthisis, phthisical. From the last three words, ph is sometimes dropped.

XVII. OF THE LETTER Q.

The consonant Q has the sound of k, and is always followed by the vowel u, which, in words purely English, is sounded like w; as in queen, quarter, request. In some words of French origin, the u is silent; as in coquet, liquor, burlesque.

XVIII. OF THE LETTER R.

The consonant R, at the beginning of words, has a rough sound; as in rose, roam; in other situations, a smoother one; as in proud, harrow, barber.

XIX. OF THE LETTER S.

The consonant S has a sharp, hissing sound; as in sad, sister, thus: and a flat sound, like that of z; as in rose, dismat.

S, at the beginning of words, or after any of the sharp consonants, is al-

ways sharp; as in see, steps, cliffs, sits, stocks, smiths.

S, after any of the flat mutes, or at the end of words when not preceded by a sharp consonant, is generally flat; as in eyes, trees, beds, bags, caloss. Ss is generally sharp.

4

S, in the termination sion, takes the sound of sh, after a consonant; as in aspersion, session: and that of th, after a vowel; as in invasion, elision. S is silent in isle, island, aisle, demesne, viscount.

XX. OF THE LETTER T.

The general sound of the consonant T, is heard in time, letter, set. T, immediately after the accent, takes the sound of tch, before u, and generally also before eas: as in nature, feature, virtue, righteous, courteous: when s or x precedes, it takes this sound before ta or to; as in fustion, bastion, mixtion. But the general sound of t after the accent, when followed by t and an other vowel, is that of th; as in creation, patient, cautious. T is sometimes silent; as in often, rustle, whistle. T represents an elementary sound. It is either sharp, as in thing, ethical, thinketh; or flat, as in this, whither, thither. T initial is sharp; as in thank: except in than, that, the, thes, their, them, thene, there, these, they, thine, this, thither, those, thou, thus, thy, and their

then, thence, there, these, they, thine, this, thither, those, thou, thus, thy, and their

compounds.

The final is also sharp; as in south: except in beneath, booth, with, and severally (and more properly) written with final eral verbs in th, which are frequently (and more properly) written with final

e; as in soothe, moothe, bequeathe.

The medial is sharp, when preceded or followed by a consonant; as in stoorthy, athwart: except in brethren, burthen, farther, farthing, murther,

northern, worthy.

The between two vowels, is generally flat in words purely English; as in gather, neither, whither: and sharp in words from the learned languages; as

in atheist, ether, method.

Th in Thames, Thomas, thyme, asthma, phthisic, and their compounds, is pronounced like t.

XXI. OF THE LETTER U.

The vowel U has three sounds properly its own:

The open, long, or diphthongal; as in tube, cubic, juvenile.
 The close or short; as in tub, butter, justice.
 The middle; as in pull, pulpit, artful.

U forming a syllable by itself, is nearly equivalent in sound to you, and requires the article a, and not an, before it; as, a union.

Bury and busy are pronounced berry, bizzy. Their compounds are similar. After r or rh, open u, and the diphthongs ue and ui, take the sound of oo; as in rude, rhubarb, rue, rueful, fruit, fruitful.

DIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH U.

U, in the proper diphthongs ua, ue, ui, uo, uy, has the sound of w, or oo feeble; as in persuade, query, quell, quiet, languid, quote, obloquy.

Ua, an improper diphthong, has the sound—1. of middle a; as in quard,

guardian: 2. of close a; as in guarantee, piquant: 3. of obscure e; as in victuals and its compounds: 4. of open u; as in mantuamaker.

Us, an improper diphthong, has the sound—1. of open u; as in blue, ensue,

agus: 2. of close s; as in guest: 3. of obscure s; as in league, antique.

Ui, an improper diphthong, has the sound—1. of open i; as guide, guile:
2. of close i; as in conduit, circuit: 3. of open u; as juide, guile:
Uy, an improper diphthong, has the sound—1. of open y; as in buy: 2. of feeble y, or open e feeble; as in plaguy.

TRIPHTHONGS BEGINNING WITH U.

Uai is pronounced like way; as in quai-a-cum, quail, quaint.
Uaw is sounded like wa in water; as in squaw, a female Indian.
Uay has the sound of way, as in Pa-ra-quay; except in quay, which Walker pronounces kee.

Uea and use are sounded use; as in queasy, queer, squeal, squeeze Uoi and uoy are sounded uoi; as in quoit, buoy.

XXII. OF THE LETTER V.

The consonant Valways has a sound like that of flattened; as in love, pulture. It is never silent.

XXIII. OF THE LETTER W.

W, as a consonant, has the sound heard in wine, win, being a sound less vocal than that of oo, and depending more upon the lips.

W before h, is pronounced as if it followed the h; as in what, when. Pc-

fore r it is always silent; as in wrath, wrench: so in whole, whoop, sword,

anewer, two.

W is never used alone as a vowel; except in some Welsh names, in which it is equivalent to oo; as in Come Cothy. In a diphthong, when heard, it has the power of u; as in brow: but it is frequently silent; as in flow, snow, &c. W, when sounded before vowels, being reckoned a consonant, we have no W, when sounded before vowels, being reckoned a consonant, we have no diphthongs or triphthongs beginning with this letter.

XXIV. OF THE LETTER X.

The consonant X has a sharp sound, like ke; as in ox: and a flat one, like

gs; as in example.

X is sharp, when it ends an accented syllable; as in exit, excellence: or when it precedes an accented syllable beginning with a consonant; as in expound, expunge.

X unaccented, is generally flat when the next syllable begins with a vowel;

as in exist, exotic.

X initial, in Greek proper names, has the sound of z; as in Xanthus, Xantippe, Xenophon, Xerxes.

XXV. OF THE LETTER Y.

Y, as a consonant, has the sound heard in yard, youth; being rather less vocal than the feeble sound of i or y, and serving merely to modify that of a succeeding vowel, with which it is quickly united.

Y, as a vowel, has the same sounds as i.—

1. The vowel, has the same sounds as i.—

2. The open or long; as in cry, thyme, cycle.

2. The close or short; as in system, symptom, cynic.

3. The feeble; (like open e feeble;) as in cymar, cycloidal, mercy.

The vowels i and y have, in general, exactly the same sound under similar cymarkers and in forming derivatives was often change one for the

circumstances; and, in forming derivatives, we often change one for the other: as in city, cities; tie, tying; casy, casily.

Y, before a vowel heard in the same syllable, is reckoned a consonant; we have, therefore, no diphthongs or triphthongs commencing with this letter.

XXVI. OF THE LETTER Z.

The consonant Z always has the sound of s flat; as in breeze, senith.

APPENDIX II.

(ETYMOLOGY.)

OF THE DERIVATION OF WORDS.

Derivation is a species of Etymology, which explains the various methods by which those derivative words which are not formed by mere grammatical

inflections, are deduced from their primitives.

Most of those words which are regarded as primitives in English, may be traced to ulterior sources, and many of them are found to be compounds or derivatives in other languages. A knowledge of the Sazon, Latin, Greek, and French languages, will throw much light on this subject. But as the learner is supposed to be unacquainted with those languages, we shall not go beyond the precincts of our own; except to show him the origin and primitive import of some of our definitive and connecting particles, and to explain the prefixes and terminations which are frequently employed to form

English derivatives.

The rude and cursory languages of barbarous nations, to whom literature is unknown, are among those transitory things which, by the hand of time, are irrecoverably buried in oblivion. The fabric of the English language is are irrecoverably buried in oblivion. The more of the English language is undoubtedly of Saxon origin; but what was the form of the language spoken by the Saxons, when about the year 450 they entered Britain, cannot now be accurately known. It was probably a dialect of the Gothic or Teutonic. This Anglo-Saxon dialect, being the nucleus, received large accessions from other tongues of the north, from the Norman French, and from the more polished languages of Rome and Greece, to form the modern English. The speech of our rade and warlike ancestors thus oraclusily improved, as Christianity. languages of Rome and creece, to form the modern English. The speech of our rude and warlike ancestors thus gradually improved, as Christianity, civilization, and knowledge, advanced the arts of life in Britain; and, as early as the tenth century, it became a language capable of expressing all the sentiments of a civilized people. From the time of Alfred, its progress may be traced by means of writings which remain; but it can scarcely be called English till about the thirteenth century. And for two or three centuries later, it was so different from the modern English, as to be scarcely intelliptible to meat readers; but, gradually improving by means upon which we gible to most readers; but, gradually improving by means upon which we cannot here dilate, it at length became what we now find it, a language, copious, strong, refined, and capable of no inconsiderable degree of harmony.

The following is an explanation of the Saxon letters employed below:

g h i m cp th u r ë or b

SECTION I.—DERIVATION OF THE ARTICLES.

1. According to Horne Tooks, the is the Saxon be from bean to take; and is nearly equivalent in meaning to that or those. We find it written in ancient works, re, se, see, ye, ce, be, be, and che; and, tracing it through what we suppose to be the oldest of these forms, we rather consider it the imperative of reon to see.

2. An is the Saxon an, ane, an, one; and, by dropping n before a consonant, becomes a. Ganoin Douglas, an ancient English writer, wrote ane, even before a consonant; as, "Ane book,"—"Ane lang spere,"—"Ane volume."

SECTION II.-DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

In English, Nouns are derived from nouns, from adjectives, from verbs, or from participles.

I. Nouns are derived from Nouns in several different ways:

1. By adding ship, dom, ric, wick, or, ate, hood, or head: as, fellow, fellowship; king, kingdom; bishop, bishopric; bailiff, or baily, bailiwick; senate, senator; tetrarch, tetrarchate; child, childhood; God, Godhead. These gensrally denote dominion, office, or character.

2. By adding ian: as, music, musician; physic, physician. These generally denote profession.

By adding y or ery: as, slave, slavery; fool, foolery; scene, scenery; cutler, cutlery; grocer, grocery. These sometimes denote a state, or habit of action; sometimes, an artificer's wares or shop.
 By adding age or ade: as, patron, patronage; porter, porterage; band,

bandage; lemon, lemonade.

5. By adding kin, let, ling, ook, cl, or erel: as, lamb, lambbin; river, rieulet; duck, duckling; kill, hillock; run, runnel; cock, cockerel. These denote little things, and are called dimin utives.

6. By adding ist as, pealm, pealmist; botany, botanist. These denote persons devoted to, or skilled in, the subject expressed by the primitive.

- 7. By prefixing an adjective, or an other noun, and forming a compound
- word; as, holiday, foreman, statesman, tradesman.

 8. By prefixing dis, in, non, or un, to reverse the meaning: as, order, disorder; consistency, inconsistency; observance, nonobservance; truth, untruth.

 9. By prefixing oounter, signifying against or opposite: as, attraction, counter-attraction; bond, counter-bond.
- 10. By adding ess, ix, or ine, to change masculines to feminines: as, heir, heiress; prophet, prophetess; abbot, abbess; testator, testatrix; hero, heroine.
- II. Nouns are derived from Adjectives in several different ways:—

 1. By adding ness, ity, ship, dom, or hood: as, good, goodness; real, reality; hard, hardship; wise, wisdom; false, falsehood.

 2. By changing t into co or cy: as, radiant, radiance; consequent, consequent.
- quence; flagrant, flagrancy; current, currency.

 8. By changing some of the letters, and adding t or th: as, long, longth; broad, breadth; high, height. The nouns included under these three heads, generally denote abstract qualities, and are called abstract nouns.

 4. By adding ard: as, drunk, drunkard; dull, dullard. These denote

the character of a person.

5. By adding ist: as, sensual, sensualist; royal, royalist. These denote persons devoted, addicted, or attached, to something.

6. By adding a, the Latin ending of neuter plurals, to certain proper adjectives in an: as, Miltonian, Miltoniana; i. e., Miltonian things—matters relating to Milton.

III. Nouns are derived from Verbs in several different ways:-

1. By adding ment, ance, ure, or age: as, punish, punishment; repent, re-

pentance; forfeit, forfeiture; stoy, stowage; equip, equipage.

2. By changing the termination of the verb, into se, ce, sion, tion, ation, or ition: as, expand, expanse, expansion; pretend, pretence, pretension; invention; create, organic omit, omission; provide, provision; reformation; oppose, opposition. These denote the act of doing, or the thing

3. By adding er or or: as, hunt, hunter; write, writer; collect, collector. These generally denote the doer.

4. Nouns and verbs are sometimes alike in orthography, but different in pronunciation: as, a kouse, to house; a reb'el, to rebel'; a rec'ord, to record'. Sometimes they are wholly alike, and are distinguished only by the construction: as, love, to love; fear, to fear; sleep, to sleep.

IV Nouns are often derived from Participles in ing. Such nouns are usually distinguished from participles, only by their construction: as, a meeting, the understanding, murmurings, disputings.

SECTION III.--DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

In English, Adjectives are derived from nouns, from adjectives, from verbs, or from participles.

I. Adjectives are derived from Nouns in several different ways:-

1. By adding ous, ious, cous, y, ey, ic, al, ical, or ine: (sometimes with an omission or change of some of the final letters:) as, danger, dangerous; glory, glorious; right, righteous; rock, rocky; clay, clayey; poet, poetic; nation, national; method, methodical; vertex, vertical; cleryy, clerical; adamantine. Adjectives thus formed, generally apply the properties of their primitives to the nouns to which they relate.

2. By adding ful: as, fear, fearful; cheer, cheerful; grace, graceful.

These denote abundance.

3. By adding some: as, burden, burdensome; game, gamesome. These de-

5. By adding some: as, ourteen, ourtensone; yame, yamesome. These denote plenty, but with some diminution.

4. By adding en: as, oak, oaken; silk, silken. These generally denote the matter of which a thing is made.

5. By adding ly or ish: as, friend, friendly; child, childish, These denote resemblance; for ly signifies like.

6. By adding able or ible: as, fashion, fashionable; access, accessible. But these terminations are generally added to verbs.

7 By adding les: as house for species: death deathless. These denote

7. By adding less: as, house, houseless; death, deathless. These denote

privation or exemption.

- 8. Adjectives from proper names, take various terminations: as, America, American; England, English; Dane, Danish; Portugal, Portuguese; Plato, Platonic.
- 9. By adding ed: as, saint, sainted; bigot, bigoted. These are participial, and are often joined with other adjectives to form compounds; as, three-sided, bare-footed, long-eared, hundred-handed, flat-nosed.

 10. Nouns are often converted into adjectives, without change of termina-

tion: as, paper currency; a gold chain.

II. Adjectives are derived from Adjectives in several different ways:—
1. By adding ish or some: as, white, whitish; lone, lonesome. These denote quality with some diminution.

2. By prefixing dis, in, or un: as, honest, dishonest; consistent, inconsistent; voies, unwoise. These express a negation of the quality denoted by their primitives.

3. By adding y or ly: as, swarth, swarthy; good, goodly. Of these there

are but few; for almost all derivatives of the latter form, are adverbs.

III. Adjectives are derived from Verbs in several different ways:

1. By adding able or ible: (sometimes with a change of some of the final letters:) as, perish, perishable; vary, variable; convert, convertible; divide, divisible. These denote susceptibility.

2. By adding ive or ory: (sometimes with a change of some of the final letters:) as, elect, elective; interrogate, interrogative, interrogatory; defend,

defensive; defame, defamatory.

3. Words ending in ats, are mostly verbs: but some of them may be employed as adjectives, in the same form, especially in poetry: as, reprobate, complicate.

IV. Adjectives are derived from Participles in the following ways:

By prefixing un: as, unyielding, unregarded, undeserved.
 By combining the participle with some word which does not belong to

the verb; as, way faring, hollow-sounding, long-drawn.

8. Participles often become adjectives without change of form. Such adjectives are distinguished from participles only by the construction: as, "A lasting ornament;"—"The starving chymist;"—"Words of learned length."

SECTION IV. -- DERIVATION OF THE PRONOUNS.

I. The English Pronouns are all of Saxon origin. The following appears to be their derivation :-

Eng.	I,	my or	mine,	me;	we,	our o	ours,	ws.
Sax.	1C,	-	mın,	me;	рe,	une,		ur.
Eng.	thou,	thy or	thine,	thee;	ye,	your or	yours,	you.
Sax.	ðu,		ðin,	ŏe;	ge,	eopen,		eop.
Eng.	he,		his,	him;	they,	their 01	theirs,	them.
				hun;	hı,	hipa, or	heona.	hem.
Eng.		her, or		her;	they,	their or	theire,	them.
Sax.	heo,	hena or	hyna,	hen;	hi,	hipa, or	beona,	hem.
Eng.	it.	•	ite.	it;	they,	their of	theirs,	them.
				hướ:	hı.		heona.	

The plurals and oblique cases do not all appear to be regular derivatives from the nominative singular. Many of these pronouns, as well as a vast number of other words of frequent use in the language, were variously written by the old English and Anglo-Saxon authors. He who traces the history of our language will meet with them under all the following forms, and perhaps more:-

1. I, J, Y, y, j, 1, ic, che, ich, 1c;—MY, mi, min, MINE, myne, myn, myn;—ME, mee, me, meh, mec, mech;—WE, wee, ve, pe;—OUE or oues, oure, une, ure, urin, uren, urne, user, usser, usses, usse, ussum ;-us, ous, vs, ur, uss, usic, usich, usig, usih.

2. Thou, thoue, thow, thowe, thu, bu, bu; -- THY, thi, thin, THINE, thyne, thyn, oin, þin;—THEE, the, theh, thec, oe be;—YE, yee, ze, zee, ze, ghe;-

tnyn, oin, pin;—There, the, theh, thec, de pe;—Tr, yee, ze, zee, ze, ghe;—
Your of Yours, youre, zour, zour, zoure, hure, eopen;—You, youe, yow, zou,
zou, ou, in, inh, eop, iow, geow, eowih, eowic, iowih.

8. Hz, hee, hie, hi, he, se;—His, hise, is, hys, hyse, ys, ys, hys, hyr;—
HIM, hine, hen, hyne, hiene, hion, hym, hym, im, him;—There, thay, their,
the, tha, thai, thii, yai, hi, hii, hie, heo, hig, hyg, hy, hiz, hi;—There of
Theres, ther, theyr, theyrs, thair, thare, hare, here, her, hir, hire, hira,
hyna, deona, beona, heora;—There, theym, thym, thaym, thaim, thame, tham,
em, hem, heom, hiom, hom, eom, him, hi, hig.

4. She, shee, sehe, sche, sho, shoe, res.

4. SHE, shee, sche, scho, sho, shoe, rce, reo, heo, hio, hiu; -- HER, [possessive,] hur, hir, hire, hyr, hyre, hyne, hyna, hena;—HER, [objective,] hir,

hire, hen, hyre, hi.
5. Ir, itt, hyt, hyt, yt, yt, hit, it, hit. According to Horne Tooke, this pronoun is from the perfect participle of hecun, to name, and signifies the said; but Dr. Alexander Murray makes it the neuter of a declinable adjective, "he, heo, hita, this."—Hist. Europ. Lang., Vol. i, p. 815.

II. The relatives are derived from the same source, and have passed through similar changes, or varieties in orthography; as,

1. Who, ho, wha, hwa, wua, hua, qua, quha, hya, hue; —whose, who's, whos, quhois, quhais, quhase, hper;—whom, whome, quhum, quhome, hwom, hpam, hwem, hwene, hwone.

Nuon, hpam, hwæm, hwæne, hwone.

2. Which, whiche, whyche, whilch, wych, quilch, quilk, quhilk, hwilc, hpilc, hwylc, hwelc, whilk, huilic, hvilc.

3. Whar, hwat, hwæt, hwet, quhat. This pronoun, whether relative or interrogative, is regarded by some as a neuter derivative from the masculine or feminine wha, who. It may have been thence derived, but, in modern Proclick it is not always of the neuter gender.

English, it is not always of the neuter gender.

4. That, in Anglo-Saxon, is that, or pac. Horne Tooke supposes this word to have been originally the perfect participle of thean, to take. This

derivation is doubtful.

From its various uses, the word that is called sometimes a pronoun, sometimes an adjective, and sometimes a conjunction; but, in respect to deriva-tion, it is, doubtless, one and the same.—As an adjective, it was formerly applicable to a plural noun; as, "That holy ordres."—Dr. Martin.

SECTION V.—DERIVATION OF VERBS.

In English, Verbs are derived from nouns, from adjectives, or from verbs. I. Verbs are derived from Nouns in the following ways:-

1. By adding ice, ise, en, or ate: as, author, authorize; critic, criticise; length, lengthen; origin, originate. The termination ize is of Greek origin; and ise, of French: the former should be generally preferred in forming English derivatives; but ise usually terminates such verbs as are essentially formed by means of prefixes; as, arise, disguise, advise, circumcise, despise, surmise, comprise, compromise, enterprise.

2. By changing a consonant, or by adding mute s: as, advice, advise; bath,

bathe; breath, breathe.

II. Verbs are derived from Adjectives in the following ways:-

1. By adding en, ate, or ize: as, deep, deepen; domestic, domesticate; civil, cimilize

2. Many adjectives become verbs, without change of form: as, warm, to warm; dry, to dry; black, to black; forward, to forward.

III. Verbs are derived from Verbs in the following ways:—

1. By prefixing des or un, to reverse the meaning: as, please, displease;

qualify, disqualify; fasten, unfasten; mussele, unmusele.

2. By prefixing a, be, for, fore, mse, over, out, under, up, or with: as, rise, arise; sprinkle, besprinkle; bid, forbid; see, foresee; take, mistake; look, overlook; run, outrun; go, undergo; hold, uphold; draw, withdraw.

SECTION VI.—DERIVATION OF PARTICIPLES.

All English Participles are derived from English verbs, in the manner explained under the head of Etymology; and when foreign participles are introduced into our language, they are not participles with us, but belong to some other part of speech.

SECTION VII.-DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

1. In English, many Adverbs are derived from adjectives by adding ly, which is an abbreviation for like: as, candid, candidly; cordid, cordidly. Most adverbs of manner are thus formed.

2. Many adverbs are compounds formed from two or more English words; as, herein, thereby, to-day, always, already, elsewhere, cometimes, wherevoithal.

The formation and the meaning of these are in general sufficiently obvious.

8. About seventy adverbs are formed by means of the prefix a; as, Abreast,

abroad, across, afresh, away, ago, awry, astray.

4. Needs, as an adverb, (meaning necessarily,) is a contraction of need is; prithes, of I pray thes; alone, of all one; only, of one like; anon, of in one linstant; never, of ne ever; [not ever].

5. Very is from the French veray, or vrai, true. "Still," says Tooke, "is

from the imperative of the Saxon reellan, to put;" and "Else is from the imperative of aleran, to dismiss." Rather is the comparative of the ancient rath, soon.

SECTION VIII.-DERIVATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

The English Conjunctions are mostly of Sazon origin. The best dictionaries of our language give us, for the most part, the same words in Sacon characters; but Horne Toole, in his Diversions of Purley, a learned and curious work which the advanced student may peruse with advantage, traces these and many other English particles to Sacon verbs or participles. The following derivations, so far as they partake of such speculations, are offered principally on his authority:-

1. ALTHOUGH, signifying admit, allow, is from all and though; the latter being the imperative of an ancient verb, meaning to allow.

2. An, an obsolete conjunction, signifying if, or grant, is the imperative of

the Saxon verb man, to grant.

8. AND, denoting addition, is said by Tooke to come from an-ab, the im-

perative of anan-ac, to grant to, to add.

4. As, according to Dr. Johnson, is from the Teutonic als; but J. H. Thoke says that als itself is a contraction for all and the original particle ss or as, meaning it, that, or which.

5. Because, meaning by cause, is from be (Saxon for by) and cause.
6. Born, the two, is from the pronominal adjective both; which, according to Dr. Alex. Murray, is a contraction of the Visigothic bagoth, doubled. The Anglo-Saxons wrote for it butu, buttou, buta, and battoa; i. e., ba, both, toa, two.

7. But, implying addition, is supposed by Tooke to have come from "bot.

the imperative of bocan, to boot, to add."

8. Bur, denoting exception, is conjectured by the same author to have come from "be-ucan, the imperative of beon-ucan, to be out."

9. ETTHER, one of the two, is from the Saxon agether, or egther.

10. Exx, signifying also or add, (now nearly obsolete) is from eac, the imperative of eacan, to add.

11. Except, which, as a conjunction, means unless, is the imperative, or (according to Dr. Johnson) an ancient perfect participle, of the verb to except. 12. For, meaning because, is the Saxon pop, or the Dutch ecor, from a Gothic noun signifying cause or sake.

18. IF, meaning give, grant, allow, is from grr, [gif,] the imperative of giran,

to give.
14. LEST, meaning that not, dismissed, is from lered, the perfect participle of legan, to dismiss.

15. NEITHER, not either, is a union and contraction of ne either: our old

writers frequently used ne for not.

 Nos, not other, not else, is a union and contraction of ne or.
 Norwithstanding, not hindering, is an English compound which needs no further explanation.

18. On has been supposed a contraction of the Saxon over, other. Dr. Bosworth gives obbe as its Saxon equivalent.

19. SAVE, [but, except,] anciently used as a conjunction, is the imperative of the verb to save, meaning to except.

20. Since [seeing or seen] is from riner, or ryne, the perfect participle of reon, to see. Seeing, too, is sometimes a copulative conjunction.

21. Than, which introduces the latter term of a comparison, is from the Saxon banne, which was used for the same purpose.

22. That [taken] is from 5æt, the perfect participle of 5ean, to take.

- 23. Though [allow] is from Darig, the imperative of Darigan, to allow. 24. Unless [except, dismiss,] is from onler, the imperative of onleran, to diemies.
- 25. WHETHER, which introduces the first term of an alternative, is the Saxon hyæben, which was used for the same purpose.

26. YET, [nevertheless,] is from zec, the imperative of zecan, to get.

SECTION IX.—DERIVATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

The following is the derivation of most of the English Prepositions:—

1. About [at circuit] is from the French &, or the English prefix a, meaning at or to, and bout, meaning turn, or limit.

2. Above [at-by-high] is from the Saxon, a, be, and ura, high.

3. Across [at-cross] is from a and the noun cross.

4. AFTER [farther in the rear] is the comparitive of aft, now used only by seamen.

5. Againer [opposed to] is from on-zeono, gone at.
6. Along [at-long] is from a and long.

7. And [at mid or middle] is from a and mid.

8. Aminer [at midet] is from a and midet, contracted from middest, the superlative of mid.

9. Among [a-mixed] is abbreviated from amongst.

10. Amonger [a-mixed] is from a and monget, a Saxon participle signifying miced.

11. Around [at oircle] is from a and round, a circle or sphere.

12. AT [joining] is supposed by some to come from the Latin ad; but Dr. Murray says, "We have in Teutonic AT for AGT, touching or touched, joined, at."—Hist. Lang., i, 849.

13. ATHWART [across] is from a and thwart, cross.

14. Before [by-fore] is from the prefix be and the adjective fore.

15. Behnn [by-hind] is from the prefix be and the adjective hind.

16. Below [by-low] is from the prefix be and the adjective low.

17. Beneath [below] is from be and the adjective neath, low; whence the comparative nether, lower.

18. Regime [by-idd] is from he and the adjective neath, low;

- 18. BESIDE [by-side] is from be and the noun side.

 19. BESIDES* [by-sides] is from be and the plural noun sides.

 20. BETWEEN [by-twain] is from be and twain, two.

 21. BETWIXT [between] is from be and twyx, a Gothic word signifying two, or twain.
- 22. Beyond [by-gone] is from be and geond, the perfect participle of

zeonoan, to pass, or go.
23. By (formerly written bi and be) is the imperative of beon, to be.

24. CONDERNING is from the first participle of the verb to concern.
25. Down [low] is from the Anglo-Saxon adjective dun, low.

- 26. DURING [lasting] is from an old verb dure, to last, formerly in use; as, "While the world may dure."—Chaucer's Knight's Tale.
- 27. Except is from the imperative, or (according to Dr. Johnson) the ancient perfect participle, of the verb to except.

 28. Except ine is from the first participle of the verb to except.

 29. For [by cause of] is from a Gothic noun signifying cause or sake.

 30. From is derived from the Saxon roum, or roam, beginning.

31. In is from the Latin in: the Greek is co, and the French on.

82. Into is a compound of in and to.88. NOTWITHEFIANDING [not hindering] is from the adverb not, and the participle withstanding.

84. Or is from the Saxon or, which H. Tooks supposes to be from a noun

- aignifying offspring.

 35. Off (opposed to on) Dr. Johnson derives from the Dutch af.

 36. On is traced by etymologists to the Gothic ana, the German an, the Dutch aan: but such a derivation does not fix its meaning.
- 87. OUTOF (opposed to into) is from the adverb out and the preposition of -usually written separately, but better joined in some instances.

88. Over [above] is from upens, higher.
39. Overthwart is a compound of over and thwart, cross.
40. Past is a contraction from the perfect participle passed.
41. Round [about] is from the noun or adjective round.
42. Since [seen], says Tooke, is from the perfect participle of reon, to see.
43. Terrough (contracted from thorough) is from a Saxon word meaning door or passage.

44. THEOUGHOUT is a compound of through and out.
45. This [the end] is from the Saxon cil, [Saxonfortill,] noting end of time. 46. To is a simple word from the Saxon to, which is supposed to come from a Gothic noun signifying end.
47. Touching is from the first participle of the verb to touch.

48. Toward or towards is probably a compound of to and ward, from pandian, to look.

49. UNDER [on nether] is from the Dutch on neder, on lower.

50. UNDERNEATH is a compound from under and neath, low.
51. UNTIL is a compound from on or un and till, the end.

52. Unto (now little used) is from on or un and to.

52. UP to (now notice used) is from on or un and w.

53. UP is from the Saxon up, which H. Tooks traces to ups, high.

54. UPON [high on] is from up and on.

55. WITH [join] is probably from the imperative of piban, to join.

56. WITHN [by-in] is from with and in.

57. WITHOUT [by-out] is from with and out.

58. WORTH [of the value of] is from the Saxon verb wyrthan or wearthan be: and has, by pedigree, as good a claim to be a preposition as by an to be; and has, by pedigree, as good a claim to be a preposition as by and

Beside should be used as a preposition, and besides only as an adverb. See reasons for this distinction, in Campbell's Philosophy of Rhetoric.

with: the old English writers used worth for be, in every part of the conjugation. According to J. H. Tooks, with, in the two compounds within and without, is from pynb, the imperative of pynban, to be; and the meaning of the former is be in, and of the latter be out. Compare the derivations of BY, with, and worth; and see observations 6th and 7th, on Rule 22d, page 209.

SECTION X.—DERIVATION OF INTERJECTIONS.

Those significant and constructive words which are occasionally used as Interjections, do not require an explanation here; and those mere sounds which are in no wise expressive of thought, scarcely admit of definition or derivation. The interjection Her is probably a corruption of the adjective high;—Alas is from the French hélas;—Alack is probably a corruption of alas;—Welaway (which is now corrupted into welladay,) is from the Saxon palapa, wo on wo; —Fig. from rian, to hate; —Heyday, from high day; — Avaunt, from the French avant, before; —Lo, from look; —Begone, from be and gone; - WELCOME, from well and come.

SECTION XI.—EXPLANATION OF THE PREFIXES.

In the formation of words, certain particles are often employed as prefixes; which, as they generally have some peculiar import, may be separately exwhich, as they generally have some peculiar import, may be separately explained. A few of them are of Anglo-Saxon origin; and the greater part of these are still employed as separate words in our language. The rest are Latin, Greek, or French prepositions. The roots to which they are prefixed are not always proper English words. Those which are such, are called Separable Radicals; and those which are not such, Inseparable Radicals.

CLASS L .- ENGLISH OR ANGLO-SAXON PREFIXES.

1. A, as an English prefix, signifies on, in, at, or to; as in a-board, a-shore, a-sleep, a-far, a-field. The French à, to, is probably the same particle; as in a-discu. This prefix is sometimes redundant; as in a-valve, a-rise.

2. Be signifies upon, to, by, or for; as in be-spatter, be-times, be-tide, be-speak. It is sometimes redundant; as in be-fird, be-deck, be-loved.

3. COUNTER means against or opposite; as in counter-poise, counter-evidence,

counter-natural.

- 4. For, in composition, seems to signify from: it is found in the irregular verbs for-bear, for-bid, for-get, for-give, for-sake, for-sweer; and in for-do, for-pass, for-pine, for-say, for-think, for-waste, which last are now seldom used.
- 5. Fore, prefixed to verbs, signifies before; as in fore-know, fore-tell: prefixed to nouns, it is an adjective, and signifies anterior; as in fore-side, fore-
- 6. HALF, signifying one of two equal parts, is much used in composition; and, often, merely to denote imperfection: as, half-sighted, seeing imperfeetly.

7. Mis signifies wrong; as in mis-do, mis-place.

8. Our, prefixed to verbs, generally denotes excess; as in out-do, out-loop: prefixed to nouns, it is an adjective, and signifies exterior; as in out-side,

out-parish.

9. Over usually denotes superiority or excess; as in over-power, over-strain, over-large, over-dose, over-growth.

10. SELF signifies one's own person, or belonging to one's own person. It is much used in composition; as in self-love, self-abuse, self-affairs, self-willed, self-accusing. Sometimes self means very; as in self-same.

11. Un denotes negation or contrariety; as in un-kind, un-load.

12. Under denotes inferiority; as in under-value, under-clerk.

13. Up denotes motion upwards; as in up-lift: sometimes subversion; as

in up-set.

14. With, as a prefix, (unlike the common preposition With,) signifies

CLASS II .- LATIN PREFIXES.

The primitives to which these are prefixed, are not many of them employed separately in English. The final letter of the prefix ad, con, ex, in, ob, or sub, is often changed before certain consonants.

1. A, AB, or ABS, means from, or away: as, a-vert, to turn from; ab-duce, to lead from; abs-tract, to draw away.
2. AD, ac, af, al, an, ap, as, at,—to or at: as, ad-vert, to turn to; ac-cede, to yield to; af-flux, a flowing-to; al ly, to bind to; an-nex, to link to; apply, to put to; as-sume, to take to; at-test, to witness to.
3. ANTE,—before: as anto-cedent, going before; anto-mundane, before the

world; ante-date, to date before.

4. Circum,—around or about: as, circum-volve, to roll around.

5. Con, con, co, col, cor,—together: as, contract, to draw together; compel, to drive together; co-erce, to force together; collect, to gather together;

pel, to drive together; co-erce, to force together; collect, to gather together; corrade, to scrape together; conjunction, a joining-together.

6. Contra,—against: as contradict, to speak against.

7. Dr.—of, from, or down: as, de-note, to be a sign of; de-tract, to draw from; de-pend, to hang down; de-press, to press down.

8. Drs., Dr.—away or apart: as, die-pel, to drive away; die-sect, to cut apart; di-oert, to turn away. Dis, before English words, generally reverses their meaning; as, please, dis-please.

9. E or r. e. e., e.,—out: as, e-ject, to cast out; ex-tract, to draw out; estay, a raising-out; ef-face, to blot out.

10. Extra,—beyond: as, extra-vagant, wandering beyond.

11. In, in, in, in,—in, into, against, or upon: as, in-spire, to breathe in; il-lude, to draw in by deceit; im-mure, to wall in; in-ruption, a breaking-in; in-our, to run into; in-dict, to declare against; im-pute, to charge upon. These syllables, prefixed to houns or adjectives, generally reverse their meaning; as, ir-religion, ir-rational, in-secure, in-sane.

12. INTER,—between: as, inter-perse, to scatter between; inter-jection, something thrown in between.

13. INTEO,—within: as, inter-vert, to turn within.

18. INTRO,—within: as, intro-vert, to turn within.
14. OB, oc, of, op,—against: as, ob-trude, to thrust against; oc-our, to run against; of-fer, to bring against; op-pose, to place against; ob-ject, cast against.

15. Per,—through or by: as, per-vade, to go through; per-chance, by chance; per-cent, by the hundred.

16. Post,—after: as, post-pone, to place after.
17. Præ, or pre,—before: as, pre-sume, to take before; pre-position, a placing-before, or something placed before.
18. Pro,—for, forth, or forwards: as, pro-vide, to take care for; pro-duce, to being forth; and study to them at forwards.

to bring forth; pro-trude, to thrust forwards.

19. PRETER,—past or beyond: as, preter-it, gone by; preter-natural, be-

yond what is natural. 20. Re, -again or back: as, re-view, to view again; re-pel, to drive back.

21. Retro,—backwards: as, retro-cession, a going-backwards.
22. Sz,—aside or apart: as, se-duce, to lead aside; se-cede, to go apart. 23. Smir, half: as, semi-colon, half a colon; semi-circle, half a circle;

eemi-vowel, half a vowel. 24. Sub, sup, sur,—under: as, sub-scribe, to write under; sup-ply, to put

- under; sur-reption, a creeping-under; sub-ject, cast under.
 25. Subter,—beneath: as, subter-fluous, flowing beneath.
 26. Super,—over or above: as, super-fluous, flowing over; super-nature,
- swimming above; super-lative, carried over.

 27. Trans,—beyond, over, to an other state or place: as, trans-gress, to pass beyond or over; trans-mit, to send to an other place; trans-form, to change to an other shape.

CLASS III .- GREEK PREFIXES.

1. A and an, in Greek derivatives, denote privation: as, a-nomalous, wanting rule; an-onymous, wanting name; an-arcky, want of government:

2. AMPHI,—both or two: as, amphi-bious, living in two elements.

Anti,—against: as, anti-acid, against acidity; anti-febrile, against fever; anti-thesis, a placing-against.
 Apo, aph,—from: as, apo-strophs, a turning-from; aph-æresis, a taking-

from.

5. DIA, -through: as, dia-gonal, through the corners; dia-meter, the measure through.

6. Eri, eph,—upon: as, epi-demic, upon the people; eph-emera, upon a

day.
7. Hemi,—half: as, hemi-sphere, half a sphere.
8. Hyper,—over: as, hyper-critical, over-critical.
9. Hypo,—under: as, hypo-stasis, substance, or that which stands under; hypo-thesis, supposition, or a placing-under.

10. Mrta,—beyond, over, to an other state or place: as, meta-morphose,

to change to an other shape.

11. Para,—against: as, para-dox, something contrary to common opinion. 12. Per,—around: as, peri-phery, the circumference, or measure round.
13. Sym, sym, syl,—together: as, syn-tax, a placing-together; sym-pathy, a suffering-together; syl-lable, what is taken together.

CLASS IV .- FRENCH PREFIXES.

1. A is a preposition of very frequent use in French, and generally means to. We have suggested that it is probably the same as the Anglo-Saxon prefix a. It is found in a few English compounds that are of French, and not of Saxon origin: a-dieu, to God; a-bout, to the end or turn.

2. Dz, -of or from: as in do-mure, of manners; de-liver, to ease from or

of.

3. DEMI,—half: as, demi-man, half a man; demi-god, half a god.

4. En, em,—in, into, or upon: as, en-chain, to hold in chains; em-brace, to clasp in the arms; en-tomb, to put into a tomb; em-bose, to stud upon. Many words are yet wavering between the French and the Latin orthography of this prefix: as, embody, of imbody; ensurance, or insurance; enemare, enemar snare; enquire, or inquire.

5. Sur,—upon, over, or after: as, sur-name, a name upon a name; sur-sey, to look over; sur-sive, to live after, to overlive, to outlive.

APPENDIX III.

(SYNTAX.)

OF THE QUALITIES OF STYLE.

Style is the particular manner in which a person expresses his conceptions by means of language. It is different from mere words, and is not to be regulated altogether by rules of construction. It always has some relation regulated altogether by rules of construction. It always has some relation to the author's peculiar manner of thinking; and, being that sort of expression which his thoughts most readily assume, sometimes partakes, not only of what is characteristic of the man, but even of national peculiarity. The words which an author employs, may be proper, and so constructed as to will be a support of the construction of the period of the construction of the construction.

of what is characteristic of the man, but even of national peculiarity. The words which an author employs, may be proper, and so constructed as to violate no rule of syntax; and yet his style may have great faults.

To designate the general characters of style, such epithets as concise, diffuse,—neat, negligent,—nervous, feeble,—simple, affected,—easy, stiff,—perspicuous, obscure,—elegant, florid,—are employed. A considerable diversity of style, may be found in compositions all equally excellent in their kind. And, indeed, different subjects, as well as the different endowments by which genius is distinguished, require this diversity. But in forming his style, the learner should remember, that a negligent, feeble, affected, stiff, or obscure style, is always faulty; and that perspicuity, ease, simplicity, strength, and neatness, are qualities always to be aimed at.

In order to acquire a good style, the frequent practice of composing and writing something, is indispensably necessary. Without exercise and diligent attention, rules or precepts for the attainment of this object, will be of no avail. When the learner has acquired such a knowledge of grammar, as to be in some degree qualified for the undertaking, he should devote a stated portion of his time to composition. This exercise will bring the powers of his mind into requisition, in a way that is well calculated to strengthen them. And if he has opportunity for reading, he may, by a diligent perusal of the best authors, acquire both language and taste, as well as sentiment; and these three are the essential qualifications of a good writer.

In regard to the qualities which constitute a good style, we can here offer no more than a few brief hints. With respect to words and phrases, particular attention should be paid to purity, propriety, and precision; and, with respect to sentences, to perspicuity, unity, and etrength. Under each of these heads, we shall arrange in the form of short precepts a few of the most important directions for the forming of a good

portant directions for the forming of a good style.

SECTION I .-- OF PURITY.

Purity of style consists in the use of such words and phrases only, as belong to the language which we write or speak.

PRECEPT 1. Avoid the unnecessary use of foreign words or idioms: as, fraicheur, hauteur, delicatesse, politesse, noblesse; he repented himself; it serves to an excellent purpose.

PRECEPT 2. Avoid, on ordinary occasions, obsolete or antiquated words;

RECEPT 2. Avoid, of ordinary occasions, obsolete or antiqued words; as, whilen, erewhile, whose, albeit, moreover, aforetime, methinks.

PRECEPT 3. Avoid strange or unauthorized words: as, flutteration, inspectator, judgematical, incumberment, connectity, electerized, martyrized.

PRECEPT 4. Avoid bombast, or affectation of fine writing. It is ridiculous, however serious the subject: as, "Personifications, however rich the depictions, and unconstrained their latitude; analogies, however imposing the

objects of parallel, and the media of comparison; can never expose the consequences of sin to the extent of fact, or the range of demonstration."-Anonymous.

SECTION II .- OF PROPRIETY.

Propriety of language consists in the selection and right construction, of such words as the best usage has appropriated to those ideas which we intend to express by them.

PRECEPT 1. Avoid low and provincial expressions: such as, "Says I;"—
"Thinks I to myself;"—"To get into a scrape;"—"Stay here while I return."
PRECEPT 2. In writing prose, avoid words and phrases that are merely poetical: such as, morn, eve, plaint, lone, amid, oft, steepy; -" what time the winds arise.

Winds arise."
PRECEPT 8. Avoid technical terms: except where they are necessary, in treating of a particular art or science. In technology, they are proper.
PRECEPT 4. Avoid the recurrence of words in different senses, or such a repetition of words as denotes paucity of language: as, "His own reason might have suggested better reasons."—" Gregory favoured the undertaking, for no other reason than this; that the manager, in countenance, favoured his friend."—" unant to go and see what he wants."
PRECEPT 5. Supply words that are wanting: thus, in stead of saying, "This action increased his former services," say, "This action increased the merit of his former services."

of his former services."

Percept 6. Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions: as, "His memory shall be lost on the earth."-" I long since learned to like nothing but what

PRECEPT 7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions: as, "I have observed that the superiority among these coffee-house politicians, proceeds from an opinion of gallantry and fashion."—"These words do not convey even an opaque idea of the author's meaning."

PRECEPT 8. Observe the natural order of things or events, and do not put the cart before the horse: as, "The scribes taught and studied the law of Moses."—"They can neither return to nor leave their houses."—"He tumbled, head over heels, into the water."

SECTION III .- OF PRECISION.

Precision consists in avoiding all superfluous words, and adapting the expression exactly to the thought, so as to exhibit neither more nor less than

s intended by the author.

PRECEPT 1. Avoid a useless tautology, either of expression or sentiment: as in, "Return again,—return back again,—converse together,—rise up;—fall down;—enter in;—a mutual likeness to each other;—the latter end;—liquid streams;—grateful thanks;—the last of all;—'aroughout the whole book." "Whenever I go, he always meets me there."—"Where is he at I In there."—"Nothing else but that."—"It is odious and hateful."—"His faithfulness and fidelity should be rewarded."

Processes? Observe the average meaning of marks and the stream of the

PRECEPT 2. Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous, and employ those which are the most suitable: as, "A diligent scholar may acquire knowledge, gain celebrity, obtain rewards, win prizes, and get high honour, though he carn no money." These six verbs have nearly the same meaning, and yet they cannot well be changed.

SECTION IV .- OF PERSPICUITY.

Perspicuity consists in freedom from obscurity or ambiguity. It is a quality so essential, in every kind of writing, that for the want of it, no merit can atone. "Without this, the richest ornaments of style, only glimmer through the dark, and puzzle instead of pleasing the reader."—Blair. Perspiciely the contract of spicuity, being the most important property of language, and an exemption from the most embarrassing defects, seems even to rise to a degree of posi-tive beauty. We are naturally pleased with a style that frees us from all

1

suspense in regard to the meaning; that "carries us through the subject without embarrassment or confusion; and that always flows like a limpid

PRECEPT 1. Place adjectives, relative pronouns, participles, adverbs, and explanatory phrases, as near as possible to the words to which they relate, and in such a situation as the sense requires. The following sentences are deficient in perspicuity:—"Reverence is the veneration paid to suferior sanctity, intermixed with a certain degree of awe." "The Romans understood liberty, at least, as well as we." "Taste was never made to cater for vanity."

PRECEPT 2. In prose, avoid a poetic collocation of words.

PRECET 2. In prose, avoid a poetic collocation of words.

PRECET 8. Avoid faulty ellipsis, and repeat all words necessary to preserve the sense. The following sentences require the words inserted in crotchets: "Restlessness of mind disqualifies us, both for the episyment of peace, and [for] the performance of our duty."—Murray's Key. "The Christian religion gives a more lovely character of God, than any [other] religion ever did."—Ibid.

SECTION V .-- OF UNITY.

Unity consists in avoiding useless breaks or pauses, and keeping one object predominant throughout a sentence or paragraph. Every sentence, whether its parts be few or many, requires strict unity.

PRECEPT 1. Avoid brokenness and hitching. The following example lacks the very quality of which it speaks: "But most of all, in a single sentence, is required the strictest unity. It may consist of parts, indeed, but these parts must be so closely bound together, as to make the impression upon the mind, of one object, not of many."—Murray's Grammar.

PRECEFT 2. Treat different topics in separate paragraphs, and distinct sentiments in separate sentences. Error: "The two volumes are, indeed, intimately connected, and constitute one uniform system of English grammar."

-Murray's Preface.

PRECEPT 3. In the progress of a sentence, do not desert the principal subject in favour of adjuncts. Error: "To substantives belong gender, number, and case; and they are all of the third person when spoken of, and of the second when spoken to."—Murray's Grammar.

Property of the second when spoken to."—Murray's Grammar.

PRECEPT 4. Do not introduce parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in without diverting the mind too long from the principal

subject.

SECTION VI.-OF STRENGTH.

Strength consists in giving to the several words and members of a sentence, such an arrangement as shall bring out the sense to the best advantage, and present every idea in its due importance. A concise style is the most favourable to strength.

PRECEPT 1. Place the most important words in the situation in which they

will make the strongest impression.

PRECEPT 2. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

PRECEPT 8. When things are to be compared or contrasted, their resemblance or opposition will be rendered more striking, if some resemblance in

the language and construction, be preserved.

PRECEPT 4. It is, in general, ungraceful to end a sentence with an adverb, a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, which may either be omitted or be introduced earlier.

APPENDIX IV.

(PROSODY.)

OF POETIC DICTION.

Poetry, as defined by Dr. Blair, "is the language of passion, or of enlivened imagination, formed, most commonly, into regular numbers." The style of poetry differs, in many respects, from that which is commonly adopted in proce. Poetic diction abounds in bold figures of speech, and unusual colloproce. Foetic diction abounds in bold figures of speech, and unusual collocations of words. A great part of the figures which have been treated of under the head of procody, are purely poetical. The primary aim of a poet, is to please and to move; and, therefore, it is to the imagination, and the passions, that he speaks. He may, and he ought to have it in his view, to instruct and reform; but it is indirectly, and by pleasing and moving, that he accomplishes this end. The exterior and most obvious distinction of poetry is varnifection; but there are some forms of varnifection; but there are some forms of varnifections. poetry, is versification: yet there are some forms of verse so loose and familiar, as to be hardly distinguishable from prose; and there is also a species of prose, so measured in its cadences, and so much raised in its tone, as to approach very nearly to poetical numbers.

POETICAL PECULIARITIES.

The following are some of the most striking peculiarities in which the poets indulge, and are indulged :-

I. They very often omit the ARTICLES; as,

"What dreadful pleasure! there to stand sublime, Like shipwreck'd mariner on desert coast?"—Beattie.

- II. They abbreviate many NOUNS: as, amaze, for amazement; acclaim, for acclamation; consult, for consultation; cores, for corpes; even, or evening; fount, for fountain; helm, for helmet; lament, for lamentation; morn, for morning; plaint, for complaint; targe, for target; evenl, for wealth.
- III. They employ several nouns that are not used in prose, or are used but rarely; as, benison, boon, emprise, fane, guerdon, guise, ire, ben, lore, meed, sire, steed, stithy, welkin, yore.
- IV. They introduce the noun self after an other noun of the possessive Case; as,

1. "Affliction's semblance bends not o'er thy tomb,

- Affliction's self deplores thy youthful doom."-2. "Thoughtless of beauty, she was beauty's self."—Thomson.
- V. They place before the verb, nouns, or other words, that usually come after it; and, after it, those that usually come before it: as,

- "No jealousy their dawn of love o'ercast, Nor blasted were their wedded days with strife."—Beattie.
- 2. "No hive hast thou of hoarded sweets."
- 8. "Thy chain a wretched weight shall prove." _ Langhorne.
- "Follows the loosen'd aggravated roar."-Thomson. 5. "That purple grows the primrose pale."-Langhorns.
- VI. They often place ADJECTIVES after their nouns; as,
- "Or where the gorgeous East, with richest hand, Showers on her kings barbaric, pearl and gold."—Milton.
 "Come, nymph demure, with mantle blue."

1. "Or drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds."—Gray.

"Imbitter'd more and more from peeriah day to day."—Thomeon.
 "All thin and naked, to the numb cold night."—Shakepeare.

VIII. They use concrete terms to express abstract qualities; (i. e., adjectives for nouns;) as,

1. "Earth's meanest son, all trembling, prostrate falls,

And on the boundless of thy goodness calls."—Young. 2. "Meanwhile, whate'er of beautiful or new, Sublime or dreadful, in earth, sea, or sky

By chance or search was offered to his view, He scann'd with curious and romantic eye."—Beattie. 8. "Won from the void and formless infinite."—Milton.

IX. They substitute quality for manner; (i. e., adjectives for adverbs;)

-The stately-sailing swan, Gives out his snowy plumage to the gale;
And, arching proud his neck, with oary feet
Bears forward fierce, and guards his osier isle."—Thomson.

2. "Thither continual pilgrims crowded still."—Id.

X. They form new compound epithets; as,

"In world-rejoicing state, it moves sublime."—Thomson.
 "The dewy-skirted clouds imbibe the sun."—Id.

"By brooks and groves in hollow-whispering gales."—Id.
 "The violet of sky-woven vest."—Langhorne.
 "A league from Epidamnum had we sailed,

Before the always-wind-obeying deep Gave any tragic instance of our harm."—Shakepeare.

XI. They connect the comparative degree to the positive; as

1. "Near and more near the billows rise."-Merrick.

2. "Wide and wider spreads the vale,"—Dyer.
3. "Wide and more wide, the o'erflowings of the mind. Take every creature in, of every kind."-Pope.

XII. They form many adjectives in y, which are not common in prose; as, A gleamy ray,—towery height,—steepy hill,—steely casque,—heapy harvests,—moony shield,—writhy snake,—stilly lake,—vasty deep,—paly circlet.

XIII. They employ adjectives of an abbreviated form: as, dread, for dreadful; drear, for dreary; cbon, for ebony; hoar, for hoary; lone, for lonely; scant, for scanty; slope, for sloping; submiss, for submission; vermil, for vermillion; yon, for yonder.

XIV. They employ several adjectives that are not used in prose, or are used but seldom; as, asure, blithe, boon, dank, darkling, darksome, doughty, dun, fell, rife, rapt, rueful, sear, sylvan, twain, wan.

XV. They employ personal PRONOUNS, and introduce their nouns afterwards; as,

1. "It curl'd not Tweed alone, that breeze." - W. Scott.

2. "Is it the lightning's quivering glance, That on the thicket streams; Or do they flash on spear and lance,

The sun's retiring beams ?"-Id.

XVI. They sometimes omit the relative, of the nominative case; as, "For is there aught in sleep can charm the wise !"-Thomson.

XVII. They omit the antecedent, or introduce it after the relative; as

"Who never fasts, no banquet e'er enjoys, Who never toils or watches, never sleeps."—Armstrong.

Who dares think one thing and an other tell, My soul detests kim as the gates of hell."—Pope's Homer.

XVIII. They remove relative pronouns and other connectives, into the body of their clauses; as,

"Parts the fine locks, her graceful head that deck."—Darwin.
 "Not half so dreadful rises to the sight

Orion's dog, the year when autumn weighs."-Pope's Homer.

XIX. They make intransitive VERBS transitive; as,

——A while he stands,
Gazing the inverted landscape, half afraid
To meditate the blue profound below."—Thomson.

2. "Still in harmonious intercourse, they liv'd The rural day, and talk'd the flowing heart."-Id.

XX. They give to the imperative mood the first and the third person; as,

1. "Turn we a moment fancy's rapid flight."—Thomson.
2. "Be man's peculiar work his sole delight."—Beattie.
3. "And what is reason? Be she thus defin'd:

Reason is upright stature in the soul!"- Young.

XXI. They employ can, could, and would as principal verbs transitive:

1. "What for ourselves we can, is always ours."

8. "Who does the best his circumstance allows,

Does well, acts nobly:—angels could no more."—Young.

B. "What would this man? Now upward will he soar,

And, little less than angel, would be more."—Pope.

XXII. They place the infinitive before the word on which it depends; as, "When first thy sire to send on earth
Virtue, his darling child, design'd."—Gray.

XXIII. They place the auxiliary after its principal; as,

"No longer keed the sunbeam bright That plays on Carron's breast he can."-Langhorne.

XXIV. Before verbs they sometimes arbitrarily employ or omit prefixes:

• s, begird, bedim, evanish, emove; for gird, dim, vanish, move:—lare,

• nilder, reave; for allure, bewail, bewilder, bereave.

XXV. They abbreviate verbs: as, list, for listen; ope, for open.

XXVI. They employ several verbs that are not used in prose, or are used 1. it rarely; as, appal, astound, brook, cower, doff, ken, wend, ween, trove.

XXVII. They sometimes imitate a Greek construction of the infinitive:

"Who would not sing for Lycidas? he knew Himself to sing, and build the lofty rhyme."—Milton.
 "For not, to have been dipp'd in Lethè lake, Could save the son of Thetis from to die."—Spenser.

XXVIII. They employ the PARTICIPLES more frequently than process aters, and in a construction somewhat peculiar; as,

"He came, and, standing in the midst, explain'd
 The peace rejected, but the truce obtain "."—Pope.
 "As a poor miserable captive thrall

Comes to the place where he before had sat Among the prime in splendor, now depos'd, Kjected, emptied, gaz'd, unpitied, shund'd, A spectacle of ruin or of scorn."—Milton.

EXIX. They employ several ADVERBS that are not used in prose, or are used but seldom; as, oft, haply, inly, blithely, cheerily, defily, felly, rifely, rue ully, starkly, yarely.

XXX. They give to adverbs a peculiar location; as,

"Peeping from forth their alleys green."—Collins.
 "Erect the standard there of ancient night."—Millon.

8. "The silence often of pure innocence

Persuades, when speaking fails."—Shakepeare.
4. "Where universal love not smiles around."—Thomson.

5. "Robs me of that which not enriches him."-Shakepeare.

XXXI. They omit the introductory adverb there; as, "Was nought around but images of rest." - Thomson.

XXXII. They employ the CONJUNCTIONS, or-or, and nor-nor, as correspondents; as,

"Or by the lazy Scheldt or wandering Po."—Goldemith.
 "Wealth heap'd on wealth, nor truth nor safety buys."—Johnson.
 "Who by repentance is not satisfied,

Is nor of heaven, nor earth."—Shakepeare.

XXXIII. They often place PREPOSITIONS and their adjuncts, before the words on which they depend; as,

> "Against your fame with fondness hate combines; The rival batters, and the lover mines."-Johnson.

XXXIV. They sometimes place the preposition after its object; as,

 When beauty, Eden's bowers within, First stretch'd the arm to deeds of sin, When passion burn'd, and prudence slept,
The pitying angels bent and wept."—Hogg.

2. "The Muses fair, these peaceful shades among,
With skillful fingers sweep the trembling strings."—Lloyd.

XXXV. They employ INTERJECTIONS more frequently than prose writers; as,

"O let me gaze!—Of gazing there's no end.
O let me think!—Thought too is wilder'd here."—Young.

XXXVI. They employ ANTIQUATED WORDS and modes of expression; as,

1. "Withouten that would come an heavier bale." - Thomson.

2. "He was to weet, a little roguish page,

Save sleep and play, who minded nought at all."—Id.

8. "Not one oftecons in view was to be found."—Id. 4. "To number up the thousands dwelling here,

An useless were, and see an endless task."—Id.

5. "Of clerks good plenty here you mote copy."—Id.

6. "But these I passen by, with nameless numbers moe."—Id.



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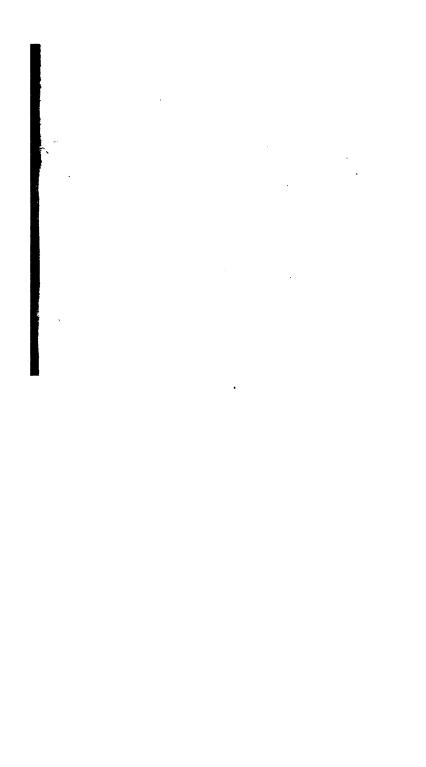
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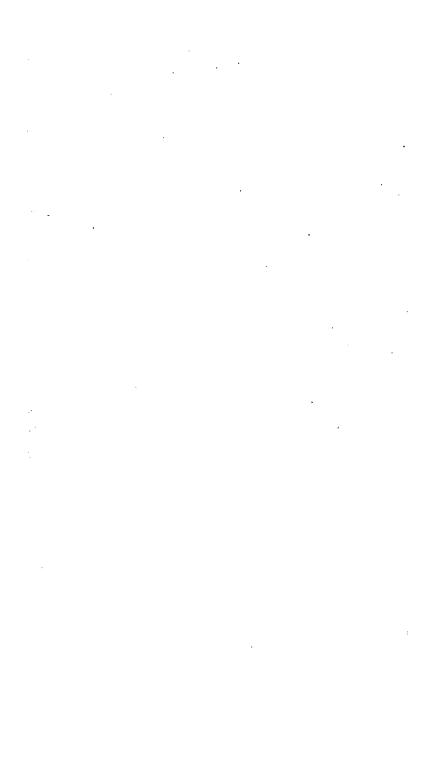
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